

# 峝采 ON <br> EARLY ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION, 

WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO

## SHAKSPERE AND CHAUCER,


#### Abstract

CONTAINING AN INVESTIGATION OF THE CORRESPONDENCE OF WRITING WITH SPEECH IN ENGLAND, FROM THE ANGLOSAXON PERIOD TO THE PRESENT DAY, PRECEDED BY A SYSTEMATIC NOTATION OF ALL SPOKEN SOUNDS BY MEANS OF THE ORDINARY PRINTING TYPES.


including
a Re-arrangement of prof. f. J. CHILD'S MEMOIRS on the Language of CHAUCER AND GOWER, REPRINTS OF THE RARE TRACTS BY SALISBURY ON eNGLISH, 1547, aNd welsh, 1567, and by barcley on french, 1521, abstracts of schmeller's treatise on bavarian dialects, and WINKLER's Low german and friesian dialecticon, and prince l. l. bonaparte's vowel and consonant lists.
by

## ALEXANDER J. ELLIS, <br> F.R.S., F.S.A., F.C.P.S., F.C.P.,

 Past president of the philological society. MEMBER OF THE MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY, FORMERLY SCHOLAR OF TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, BAA. 1837.> PA R T I V. pp. $997-1432$.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH IN THE XVII TH, XVIII TH, AND XIX TH CENTURIES.
LEDIARD, BONAPARTE, SCHMELLER, WINKLER. RECEIVED AMERICAN AND IRISH PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH. PHONOLOGICAL INTRODUCTION TO DIALECTS.

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## CORRIGENDA ET ADDENDA

In addition to those already given on the backs of notices to Parts I. and II. and back of title to Part III., containing all the errors hitherto observed that could cause the slightest diffienlty to the reader.

* This star is prefixed to the Addenda. The additions promised for Part IV. at the back of the title to Part III., in the belief that Part IV. would conclude the work, are necessarily postponed to Part VI. The additions here given are all of small extent.


## In PART I. pp. 1—416.

pp. 3-10, the symbols of palacotype have been much extended, and occasionally corrected. Sce the subsequent list of Additional Palaeotypic Symbols, p. xii.
p. 11, lines 19,22 , in the Cattir words, for (u i) read ( $u$ i).
*p. 29, table, col. xvii, for nim't read niн't; and add to table: " (u) is put for (u) in the old pronunciations, owing to uncertainty."
p. 32, against 1547 , read 38 Henry VIII.
p. 33, l. 13 from bottom, read Jean Pillot.
p. 41, 1. 14 from bottom, for Ripon, read Chester.
p. 50, col. of Sovereigns, between Edw. VI. and Elizabeth, insert 1553 Mary.
p. 57, lines 15,6 , and 3 from bottom, read get, mare, (mee's).
p. 67, 1.11 from bottom of text, for Mr. M. Bell's French nasals, read (ea, oha, oh.s, ә.1).
p. 80, 1. 7, and p. 111, 1. 16, read deei (dee-ći).
p. 93, col. 4, line 5, read endev'土.
p. 95, 1. 2, read stoo'土rri.
p. 99, l. 5, read норе hope (ноор).
*p. 111, 1. 6, at end of sentence, add: " (see p. 817, note)."
p. 116, 1. 1, omit and as it probably was in the xiv th century.
p. 131, l. 8 from bottom of text, read dzhoint.
p. 134, l. 9 from bottom of text, read vai $i$ idzh.
*p. 145, l. 11 from bottom of text, add: "See p. 976, 1. 6."
p. 153, lines $9,10,11$ from bottom, omit which.
p. 158, 1. 9, read molten.
p. 159, 1. 9, read ût, nût, brût, bût.
*p. 173, l. 9 from bottom of second col. of note, for $(\rho, \alpha)$, read $(\rho$, ah). At end of that note add: "Prince L. L. Bonaparte heard M. Fćline use ( $(\infty)$ for $e$ muct ; all references to his pronunciation must be corrected accordingly."
*p. 189, 1. 7, read (bun, bun'e) ; and at end of paragraph add: "M. Paul Meyer told me ( 30 April, 1871) that he suspected Palsgrave to allude to the Provençal method of using -0 , for what in northern Freuch is ee mute, and to have pronounced this o cither as ( -0 ) or ( - oh )."
p. 190, last line of text, read (or eindzhiz).
p. 192, last line, read ${ }^{2}$.
p. 196, l. 12 from bottom of text, read differing nearly as ( $\ell, \mathbf{\varepsilon}$ ).
p. 198, lines 10 and 11, for Ux, JUI, read whi, suh.s.
*p. 201, 1. 6 from bottom, add as a footnote: "Mr. F. G. Fleay says he knows two certain instanees of Londoners saying (draar)."
*p. 204, note 1, add: "The passages adduced by F. L. K. Weigand (Wnerterbuch der Heutsehen Su, nonymen, No. 1068) seem to leave no donbt as to the historic origin of chureh from the Greek, through the canons of the Greek churches."
p. 215, l. '2, read (kondis'iun).
*p. 218, add at end of first column of footnote: "See also p. 922, col. 2, under suitor, and p. 968, col. 2, under S."
p. 220, 1. 11, italicise humble.
p. 223, note 1, 1. 1, read Lehrgebäude.
p. 226, note 1, l. 1, after treatise, add: "(reprinted below, p. 815)."
p. 236, 1. 4, read myyv.
p. 240, 1. 2, read but.
*p. 247, 1. 18, add as footnote: "See the investigation below, pp. 453-462, and pp. 820, 822, under ai, ci."
p. 264, l. 7, read saunz.
*p. 265, note 1, add: "See p. 473, n. 1, and p. 1315."
p. 268, 1. 3, read 5322.
p. 269, note, col. 1, l. 6, read mouiller.
p. 271, 1. 13, read confuses.
*p. 281, 1. 31, for: "The words do not occur in Gill, but lady does occur," read and add: "The words lady, worthy, occur in Gill, who writes (laa'di, ladii•), see p. 935, l. 13, below, and (wurdh $i$ ), see p. 909, col. 2, below; and lady also occurs. . . . ."
*p. 282, 1. 5 from bottom, add: "See p. 817, note."
p. 283, 1. 8, read melodye.
p. 284, 1. 29, read $D i e=($ dai $\cdot$ e, dï•e $)$.
p. 286, lines 6 and 11, read ( $\mathrm{ti} \cdot \cdot \mathrm{e}$, pi$\cdot \cdot \mathrm{ne}$ ).
p. 287, 1. 13, omit it.
p. 288, note 1 , line 4 , read effect is.
p. 294, line last of text, read but (ee, oo).
p. 295, line last but one of text, read were.
p. 301, l. 10, read words in ew.
p. 307, l. 22, for (Eu), read (玉u).
*p. 316, note 1 , line 5 , read an and en; and at the end of note I add: "see below, pp. 509, $825-828$, and p. 828 , note $1 . "$
p. 319, last line of text, read world.
p. 321, 1. 2, omit one нeer-de.

1. 7, read Herts*ogh.
", 1. last of text, read fee-torlikhe.
p. 323, 1. 25, read graas.
2. 36, read ne/h hten.
p. 325 , l. last but one of text, read lorsque.
*p. 327, throughout the French transcription of M. Féline's pronunciation interchange (a) and ( $\propto$ ), according to the correction of the meaning of M. Féline's symbols given me by Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte, who heard him speak; thus v. 1, read (kœ lœ siel kelkœ zhur), and v. 8 read (miə ke), etc. See p. 173 in this list.
p. 327 , note, last line, omit which.
p. $328,1.7$ from bottom of text, read sauta.
p. 330, l. 13 from bottom of text, for be aware, read beware.
p. 331, 1.17 from bottom of text, read désirs.
p. 336, commence note with ${ }^{1}$.
p. 337, 1. 9 from bottom, read kouth'.
p. 342, 1. 10, read hadd'.
p. 343 , note 3 , line 2 , read $̆$ an $e$.
p. 345, I. 9 from bottom of text, read restored.
p. 346, art. 14, ex., col. 2, 1. 11, read xt ham.
p. 351 , line 5 , read fæder.
" art. 35, 1. 4, read Past.
, art. 38, line 4, read more, bettre.
p. 354, art. 51, ex., col. 2, line 7, read he let.
p. $357,1.10$ from bottom, read Tale.
p. 358, art. 65, under Scilal, line 2, read (dialectic).
*p. 363, art. 82, ex., insert afler v. 388: "[Sce note on v. 386, p. 700, below.]"
p. 366, I. 5, for new fr., read old fr.
p. 367, art. $92,1.13$, read then, and 1. 14, read tyme.
p. 370 , note 1 , citation iii. 357, read This touche .
3. 374 , art. 108, ex., col. 2, line 1, read at-eifter.
p. 385 , col. 2, under, hevenriehe, read heofonrice.
p. 386, col. 1, under ill, read ylle.
p. 388, col. I, under lore, read lore.
," $\quad$, under -Ly, line 6, read sodeinliche.
p. 392, eol. 2, under ** Sleeve, reud 16 slecve 13152', slef ii $213^{\prime}$.
pp. 398-402, tables of probable sounds, ete., for (i, u), real (i,u) in several places ; and also often to end of p. 415.
p. 400, under TH, read in two sounds.
4. 413, col. 2, 1. 1, read P'aa-ter.
in Kree•doo, 1. 1, read in'e.
p. 415 , v. 489 , read D $i$ isentees Ee. vel Aa.

## In PART YI. pp. 417-632.

*p. 439, note 5 , add: "The text of the Bestiary has been again printed from the Arundel MS. 292, in Dr. Morris's Old English Miseellany, published by the Early English Text Society in 1872, rel. 49, pp. 1-25. The references to the numbers of the verses (not to those of the pages) given in the present book, P13. 439-441, hold good for this edition."
p. 441, 1. 13, and p. 445, 1. 10 trom bottom of text, for n. 4, read n. 1.
${ }^{\text {t}}$ Pp. 442-3, add as footnote: "For corrections of some quantities, sce p. 1270, note $1 .{ }^{\text {. }}$
p. 462, quotation, v. 2, read Richard.
*p. 465, 1. 35, add as footnote: "On the confusion of long r and 3 , see note in Madden's lazamon, vol. 3, p. 437, which will be further treated in Part VI."
p. 468, translation, col. 2, v. 4, read hill.
p. 473 , note 1, col. 1, 1. 8 from bottom, for § 3, read § 1 , p. 1171 ;-col. 2, 1. 1, for p. 446 , read p. 447 ;-1. 14, for $\S 4$, rad $\$ 2$ (the reference is to the notice which will appear in Part V.) ;-l. 18, read 1ILay (the month);-and for the pronunciations in lines $17,20,21,22,24,25$, read: (mee, dee, $\varepsilon$ wee*, pee, shiip, sláp, mí, she'ip, sle'ip, me'i, E'i, dzhe'ist, dzhe'int, be'id, pe'int, eint-ment).
*p. 474, 1. 22, to the words "dede never appears as deide," add the footnote $\left({ }^{2}\right)$ : "In the Cotton text of the Cursor Mandi, v. 1619, p. 100 of Dr. Morris's edition published by the Early English Text Society, we find deid rbyming to red; but the word is here the substantive deed, not the verb did, which is written did on v. 1608 above, rhyming to kydd. This deid is a mere clerical error for ded; the Fairfax, Göttingen, and Trinity MSS. have all dede, and the Cotton has ded, v. 1952. ."
*p. 475, note 1, add to this note: "In Cursor Mfundi, Cotton text, v. 1629, we have pe first was Sem, cham was the topeir,
And laphet hight pat yonges broper,
where Dr. Morris writes ' 'ronges[t],' but this is unnecessary, see p. 1400, Halifax version, v. 12. Hiere we have a spetling topeir, which would have apparently rhymed to cir in ILavelok. But it is a mere clerical error, not found in the other MSS., any more than the singular errors in v. 1973-4, I fel agh naman do til ofer
For ilkan agh be ofier broijer,
where oper, opier, occur in consecutive lines, and broijer is a similar error ; oper is the usual spelling in the Cotton MS., as in v. 1979, but we have broifer, toifer, v. 2031, with brofer v. 2043, etc. Nothing phonetic can be distinctly concluded from such vagaries."
p. 475 , lines 3 and 4 from bottom of text, see note 4 on p. 1404, col. 2, v. 26.
p. 476, l. 1-19, see the remarks on p. 1310.
*P. 477, note 2, I. 3, omit more. Add to note: "On this dental $t$, better written (.t), see p. 1096, col. 1, and p. 1137, col. 2, 1. 16 from bottom."
p. 478, note $2,1.5$, read from giving.
*p. 481, note 1, add: "Another copy of the Moral Ode will be found in Dr. Morris's Old English Miscellany (E. E. 'T. S. 1872), p. 58, and again another in the Old English Homilies, sccond series (E. E. T. S. 1873),
p. 220. On p. 255 of this last is given a hymn to the Virgin, of which the first verse with the musical notes, and the second verse without them, are photolithographed opposite p. 261, with a translation of the music first by Dr. Rimbault, p. 260, and secondly by mysclf, p. 261, of which the latter will appear in Part VI. of this book. To my translation I have added annotations, pp. 262-271, explaining the reasons which influenced me, and the bearings of this music (which is comparable to that of the Cuekoo Song, and Prisoner's Prayer, suprà pp. 426, 432) on the pronunciation of final E, etc., the pith of which will also appear in Part VI."
*p. 487, 1. 9, for attributes read seems to attribute. Add to note 1: "Was yate in line 16 of this note a misprint for yete? Did Thorpe mean that zet in Orrmin would have been (seet)? or (siit)? If (siit), then Thorpe consistently attributes modern habits to Orrmin; if (Jeet), he makes one remarkable exception. There is uothing in his remarks which will decide this point, and hence I alter my expression in the text."
p. 490, l. 24, read further;-note 1, last line, read Orrmin's.
p. 495, col. 3, prazhe, remove $\dagger$, for this word is not oblique in v. 3475.
*p. 515, note, add at the end: "p. 541, and see especially note 2 to that page."
*p. 516, add to note 3: "More particulars respecting this MS., which has been re-examined for me by Mr. Sweet, will be given in Part VI. There is little doubt that it is wrongly taken to be Anglosaxon on pp. 518-522, but is rather Celtic. However, it certainly shews the correspondence of the sounds of Latin and Greek letters in this country at that time, and hence indirectly bears on Anglosaxon usage. The MS. has a Paschal table from A.D. 817 to 832 , which places it in the ix the century."
*518, note, col. 2, l. 8, after "teeth," insert: " see p. 1103, col. 1, and p. 1337, col. 2, on i. 25."-Both refer to the Sanscrit $v$.

* p. 531 . The following explanation of the words here quoted from Wace will appear as a note in Part VI.; it is taken from a letter of Mr. Skeat, date 1 Jan. 1872: "The cup was passed round. If a man drank too much, he was cautioned, 'Drink half' (only); if he kept the cup too long, the men two or three places off him sang out-- Let it come, where is the cup?' 'Drink hindweard' is drink backwards, i.e. pass the cup the wrong way; though it would commonly take the form : 'Ne drinke ge hindweard,' i.e. ' don't driuk backward, none of your passing the cup the wrong way round.' I have heard 'Let it come' in a college hall; it is a most natural exclamation. I have said it myself! So instead of meaning ' may you have what you want' [as suggested suprà p. 532, line 1], it is: ' may $I$ have what $I$ want,' which is human nature all over."
p. 534, conjectured pronunciation, v. 12, 1. 3, and v. 13, l. 5, read ææhte.
*p. 541, note 2, 1. 4, add: "printed in an enlarged form in Appendix I. to Mr. Sweet's edition of King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pustoral Care, printed for the E. E. T. S., Part II., 1872, pp. 496-504; in the Preface to this Part, pp. xxi-xxxiii, Mr. Sweet enters on the Phonology of Anglosaxon."
p. $543,1.8$, read (g $w \mathrm{~h}$, wh, w).
p. 547, 1. 13, for " ( $s$ ) final," read " $s$ final."
p. 592, note, col. 2, line 2, read minimum.
*p. 600, col. 1, line 12, after hue, insert hew.
p. 601, col. 2, ( 0 o), line 3, read heard in the.
p. 628, 1. 3, read exist '.)-


## In PART III. pp. 633-996.

*p. 637, l. 16, after "usual," add as a footnote: "Frequent instances of the interchange of (ii, ee, ái) will be found in the specimens from Winkler's Dialeticon, see below p. 1375, 1. 21."
*p. 638, note, at end of note continued from p. 637, add: " Prince L. I.. Bonaparte informs me that the real Portuguese sound of $a$ is (e), which is also nasalised (æ.1), see p. 1303, No. 23, vowels 8 and 9 . Final and naccented, this $a$ is nearly (e).
*p. 639, note 1, col. 2, I. 11, add: "Mr. (now Dr.) Murray collated this MS. in Edinburgh in 1871, and informs me that the MS. has deye, and not dethe, or drfe, which is a gross blunder of D. Laing's, as the $y$ of the MS. is always detted, and the $\rho$ never is. He says that D. Laing's Abbotsford text has above 50 misreadings per page."
" p .619 , lines 7 and toll. The Alexandrines in Chaucer will be reconsidered in Part VI.;-line 12, after MSS., insert: "in retaining of hem"; -line 20, after " unanimous," add: "in inserting poure";-line 25 , after MSS., insert as a footnote: "except the Cambridge, which reads -

With a threadbare kope as is a scholer,
where the is, which appears also in the Ellesmere and Hengwrt MSS., but not in the others, is an evident error."
p. 663, note $38,1.13$, read of ( $\kappa c$ ) for (ai).
pp. 650-725, in Chaucer's Prologue, make the following corrections, in addition to those pointed out in the footnote p. 724 , they are mostly quite unimportant. In the 'Text, v. -2, perced'; v. 3, lycour ; v. 8, yronne; v. 13, palmeer's; v. 20, Tabbard; vv. 21, 78, pilgrimage; v. 24, weel; v. 25, vfalle; v. 29, weel; v. 49, Christendoom; v. 57, Palmirye; vv. 64, 85, been; v. 72 gentel; v. 73, array; v. 85, chyrachye; v. 99, scrvysabel; v. 101, pocok ; v. 107, feth'res; v. 123, nose ; v. 138, amiabl' ; v. 141, dygn'; v. 157, clook', as ; v. 169, brydel; v. 170, clcre; v. 186, laboure: v. 189, prykasour; v. 202, stemed'; v. 209, lymytour ; v. 224, pytawnce; v. 226, sygne; v. 241 , ev'rych; v. 245 syke; v. 248, vytayle; v. 255 , eer ; v. 282, chevysawnce; v. 308, lern', and ; v. 326, wryting'. -In the Pronunciation, v. 41, add comma; v. 76, add period; v. 144, saukwh (wrongly corrected sak $u$ h in tootnote to p. 724); v. 152 add semicolon "fter strait; glas;-in the Note on v. 260, p. 693, for "So all MSS. except Ca." read "All MSS. insert pore except Ca."
p. 756 , note, col. 2, lines 25 and 26 , read" (lhh, $l \mathrm{hh}, \mathrm{ljhh}, \mathrm{ljhh})$ occur in the Sardinian dialect of Sassari, and (lhh) in the dialect of the Isle of Man." Observe that (lhh) does not occur in the dialect of the Isle of Man, as it is incorrectly stated to do in the note as printed.
*1. 763, note 2, add:" Winge is given for whine from Rothbury, see the comparative specimen in Chap. XI. § 2. No. 12. below. This was more probably the word alluded to."
*1). 768 , add note to title of $\$ 2$ : "This work was first seen by me in the British Muscum on 14 Feb .1859 , from which day, therefore, the present researches shonld be dated."
p. 789, col. 1, art. bold, read (booud).
*p. $\quad$ 69, note 1 , col. 1 , lines 17 to 20. This is not a perfectly correct representation of the Prince's opinion, see reference on p. 1299, under (eh) No. 54 ; see also the additional note, given in this table of Errata, to p. 1296, line 1.
p. 800, note, col. 1, the Prince wishes to omit 2) and 3), lincs 4 to 8 ;-col. 2, the notations (sh $\dagger, q$ sh), etc., are now (sh), etc., and (ys), etc., is now ( s ), etc.
${ }^{*}$ p. $80^{2}$, note, col. 1, linc last, for Madrid, read Spain, although heard in Spanish America.-Add at end of note: "Prince L. L. Bonaparte considers that no buzzed consonant is found in Spanish, and hence that it is an error to suppose that (dh) or ( $z$ ) occur in it. He thinks $b$ or $v$ Spanish is (b) after a consonant, or when standing for Latin $b b$, and (bh), which he does not reckon as a buzz, after a vowel or when initial. The Spanish strong $r$, initial and after $n$, and $r$ betwcen vowels, he regards as a Basque sound (r), p. 1354, col. 2, No. 203. In Basque the only ordinary $r(r)$ is a euphonic insertion, as our cockney law $(r)$ of the land, draw $(r)$ ing room. The Castilian $s$ be considers to be the Basque $s$, and it sounded to me as a forward dental $s$ with a half lisp, possibly (th) of p. 1353, No. 143, or $(\mathrm{s} s)$ of p .1105 , col. 1, 1. 24 from bottom. These tine varieties are very difticult to appreciate by persons who cannot hear thom constantly in the spoken language, from many different speakers."
"p. 803, last words of Hart, add as note: "This was Lord Eldon's farourite motto."
"p. $834,1.25$, add footnote: "The subject of modern, as distinet from ancient. French accent, has becn considered in my paper on decent and Emphasis,

Trans. of Philological Society for 1873-4, pp. 138-139, and by Prof. Charles Cassal, a Frenchman, ibid, pp. 260-276; but the views we have taken are disputed and stated to be entirely incorrect by most French authorities, and even by Prince L. L. Bonaparte, whose Italian education makes him familiar with the meaning of accent. The part played by Latin accent in French is the subject of an E'tude sur le Rôle de l'Accont Latin dans la langue Française by M. Gaston Paris (1862), who also holds that M. Cassal and I are wrong in our views, but whose pronunciation, when tested by myself and Mr. Nicol, bore out what M. Cassal and myself meant to imply, so that there must be a radical difference of the feeling, rather than of the conception, conveyed by the word 'accent.' Hence the need of scientific researches, suggested in other parts of my paper on Accent and Emphasis. An advance towards a mechanical registration of the force of uttered breath in speech has been made by Mr. W. H. Barlow, F.R.S., in his Logograph, described in the Proceedings of the Royal Society, vol. 22, pp. 277-286, and less fully in a note to my Third Annual Address to the Philological Society (Trans. Ph. S. 1873-4, p. 389). The nature of Latin accent itself, whence, as seen through a Celto-Frankish medium, French accent arose, has been carefully considered and practically illustrated in my Practical Hints on the Quantitative Pronuneiation of Latin (Macmillan \& Co., 1874). The strange difference in the whole character of French, Italian, and Spanish pronunciation, and especially in the nature of accent and quantity in these languages, although all derived very directly from Latin, and although Spain and Gaul were celebrated for the purity of their Latin, next of course to Rome, shews that the whole question requires reinvestigation."
p. 866 , note, col. 2, 1. 4, read mead. In lines 7, 8, 9, a line has been dropped. The complete passage is printed on p. 1061, note, col. 1 , line 10.
p. 918 , line 15 , read Shakspere was a South Warwickshire man.
p. 921, example of puns, "dam damn," 1.2, rcad (191', 33).
*! 23 , col. 2, add to the example "foot, gown:" " We have an echo of none as gown, that is (nun) as (guun, gun) in TS 4, 3, $31(247,85$ ), where Katerine says: 'I like the cap, And it I will have, or I will have none,' which Petruchio chooses to hear as gown, for he says: 'Thy gowne, why I ; come, Tailor, let vs see't.'"
*p. 923, to the examples of puns under A, add: "cate Kate TS 2, 1, 50 (238, 189-90). Observe that th in Katharina, as the name is spelled in the Globe edition, was simple (t). The folio has Katerina, and that Katerine was either (Kat-rin), or more probably (Kaa•triin), whence (Kaat) was the natural diminutive."
*pp. 925-6, add to example of puns under OA, 0,00 : "on one TG, 2, 1, 2 (24', 2); 'Spced. Sir, your Gloue. - Valen. Not mine; my Gloues are on.$S p$. Why then this may be yours: for this is but one. This is conclusive for the absence of an initial ( $\pi$ ) in the sound of one."
*p. 938, note 1, add at end: "See also Chap. XI. § 2. No. 11. for Derbyshire usage."
*p. 942, col. 1, before the last entry under Fourth Measure Trissyllabic, insert:
To be suspected: framed to make women false. Oth. 1, 3, $86\left(885^{\prime}, 404\right)$.
*p. 946, col. 2, add to the examples of well-marked Alexandrines in Othello:
That came a-wooing with you, and so many a time. Oth. $3,3,31(893,71)$.
Not that I love you not. But that you do not love me. Oth. 3, 3, 90 $(899,196)$.
Since guiltiness I know not; but yet I feel I fear. Oth. 5, 2, 16 (907, 39).
*p. 953, just before the heading Shakspere's Rhymes, insert as a new paragraph:
"Since the above examples were collected and printed, the subject of Shakspere's metrical usages has received great attention. See the Transactions of the New Shakspere Society, 1874-5. See also Mr. Furnivall's essay on The Succession of Shakspere's Works and the use of Metrical Tests in Settling it, being the introduction to Miss Bunnett's translation of Gervinus's Commentaries on Shakspere (1874)."
p. 963, col. 2 , under " caught her," l. 8, omit first ).
p. 980 , note, col. 1, line 18. The Devonshire 00 will be fully considered in Chapl. XI. § 2. No. 11.
p. 986, l. 10 of P'ortia's specech, read "mersi."

In PART IV. pp. 997-1432.
p. 1085, note, col. 2, 1. 4 from bottom, after "below," add: p. 1310.
p. 1086, 1. 16, read my ( $\rho$ ) in the xvis th may have been ( $\mathrm{a}, \infty$ ).
p. 1114, col. 1, line 5 from bottom, read being, $d r$, $r v$.
p. 1167, col. 2, under sir, read ( $\mathrm{se}^{-} \mathrm{se}$ ).
p. 1180 , col. 2, v. 29, read aansering.
p. 1221, col. 2, l. 19 from bottom, read (ruen) or (Iuren).
*p. 1251, add to note continued from p. 1250: "Mr. Elworthy, of Wellington, Somerset, says he has never heard Ise as a pure nominative, but only is standing apparently for us and used as $I$. More upon this in § 2. No. 11."
"p. 1296, 1. 1, aftor "in such case," add as a footnote: "The following remark of the Prince on this passage in the text was not received till this page had been printed off: 'When the vowels $\left(25 e_{1}, 460_{1}\right)$ lose their tonic accent in Italian, they do not become quite ( $29 e$ ) and ( 510 ), but the original sounds still influence the vowels in their unaccented state, producing the intermediate sounds (28e) and (490). This explanation seems to me quite logical, and it is in accordance with the sensations of every fine Tuscan and Roman ear. On the contrary, if the original vowel is (29e) and (510), it remains unaltered when it loses the accent. Compare the $e$ and $o$ of bellina, collina (derived from bèllo, colle, which have open vowels), with the $\varepsilon$ and $o$ of stclluccia and pollúnca (derived from stélla, póllo, which have close vowels). I had never the least doubt upon this point, but in my previous statements I did not take the present minute gradations of sound into consideration. It would certainly be better to pronounce bellína, collina with $(29 c, 510)$ than with $\left(25 e_{1}\right)$, and $\left(46 o_{1}\right)$.-L.L.B.' "
*p. 1323, note, col. 2, 1. 7, «dd: (abstracted below, pp. 1378-1428).
p. 1376, 1. 24, rad (suurtor Jot).
p. 1381, col. 1, l. 5, read saa'nə.
p. 1393, col. 2, line 8, rad por sii, and see p. 1428, col. 2, Note.

## PALAEOTYPE: ADDITIONAL SYMBOLS AND EXPLANATIONS.

The original list of Palacotypie symbols, pp. 3-12, drawn up at the commencement of this work, has had to be supplemented and improved in many points during its course, and especially during the delicate phonetic investigations of Part IV. Each new point is fully explained in the text as it arises, and although reference is generally made to the place subsequently, it will probably be found convenient in using the book to have all these references collected together, as it is boped they are in the following list, which follows the order of the pages in the book. The index in Part VI. is intended to refer to each letter and symbol in alphabetical or systematic order.
p. 419, note, col. 1, line 2, symbol of diphthongal stress : an acnte accent used to mark the rowel which has the stress in diphthongs, when the position of stress is abnormal, as (eá). This use has been subsequently extended to all cases of diphthongs, and uniformly used to mark diphthongs from p. 1091 onwards, see p. 1100, col. 2.
p. 419, note, col. 1, 1. 16, symbol of evanescence: the mark L, a cut [, shews that the following vowel is searcely heard; $L 7$ shew that all included letters are scareely heard; excessively slight L L see p. 1328 in this list.
p. 800, note, col. 2, symbols for adranced $s$, sh $=(7 \mathrm{~s}, 7 \mathrm{sh})$ and retracted $s, s h$ $=$ (ys, ysh), subsequently replaced by (s, sh) and ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ).
p. 998, 1. 11, symbol of discontinuity: the mark , a cut ), used to shew absenee of glide; this is rendered nearly unnecessary by an extension of the use of the symbol of diphthongal stress, p. 419 in this list.
p. 1090, at the end of text, the mode of reference to pages and quarter pages is explained; the two symbols introduced in the summary of contents are referred to seriatim below.
p. 1094, col. 1, l. 33, symbols of Goodwin's theorctical English ch, $j=(\mathrm{kJ}, \mathrm{gf})$ where ( J ) is turned ( f ), see also p. 1119 in this list.
p. 1095 , col. $2,1.30$, symbol of advanecd contact, changed from $(\vdash)$ or $(\cdot)$ to $(1)$, as ( $, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) (for $\mathrm{t} \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{f}$ ) or (.t, .d) for the dental $t, d$.
p. 1096, col. 1, 1. 20, and col. 2, 1. 28, the use of ( $\mathrm{t} \downarrow, \mathrm{d} \downarrow$ ) for $t$, $d$, with inverted tongue, supposed to be incorrect for Sanscrit, and use of ( $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{D}$ ) for Indian mûrddhanya $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, and ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) for English coronal t, d. In the Dravidian languages the inversion of the tongue, so that the under part of the tongue strikes the palate, seems to be more distinct, and ( $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{t}$ ), which seem to be the same to a Bengalee, are apparently distiuct as $(t+, t)$ to a Madrasee.
p. 1097, col. 1, under (uu) ; symbol of ('u) whispcrcd, and ("u) hisscd vovels, see p. 1128 below in this list.
p. 1097, col. 2, symbols for explosions ( $\mathrm{t}[\mathrm{uu}, \mathrm{th}[\boldsymbol{u}, \mathrm{t} ; \mathrm{H} \boldsymbol{\mu u}$ ) and implosions (' t ), see p. 1128 below in this list.
p. 1098, col. 1, under ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) ; symbol for Bell's untrilled $r=\left(r_{c}\right)$, the ( ${ }_{0}$ ) being a turned mark of degrees $\left({ }^{\circ}\right)$. This may be extended to $\left(l_{c}\right)$, which indicates the same position. See p. 1341 below in this list.
p. 1098, col. 2, symbols for advanced or dental $r(r)$ and retracted $r(r)$.
p. 1099, col. l, under (oo.x), symbol of indistiuct vowel accompanied by permissive trill $(.1)$, so that $(x=2)$ or $(x=\partial r)$ at pleasure. Bell's point glide is ( ${ }^{\prime} r^{r}$ ), my ( $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$ ), where (') is a "helpless indication of obscure vocality," see p. 1128 in this list.
p. 1099, col. 2, Donders on glottal r ( I ), where ( I ) is turned (L).
p. 1100 , col. 2, 1.8 from bottom, symbol of widening the pharynx, as $\left\langle e_{2}\right\rangle$ for (e) with pharynx widened; supposed to be Irish.
p. 1102, col 2, Land's explodent (8), see p. 1292, col. 2.
p. 1104, col. 2, l. 3 from bottom ; symbol of advanced $s, s h=(. s$, sh), replacing ( 7 s , 7 sh ).
p. 1105, col. 1, 1. 24 from bottom, divided $s=$ (s§), probably Spanish.
p. 1105, col. 1, l. 15 from bottom, retracted $s=(\mathrm{s})$.
p. 1107, col. 1, 1. 5, symbols of higher and lower positions of the tongue in uttering vowels $=\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}, \mathrm{e}^{11} ; \mathrm{e}_{1}, \mathrm{e}_{11}\right)$, and of close and open consonants as ( $\mathrm{ph}^{1}, \mathrm{ph}_{1}$ );-line 28, symbol of more hollowness at back of tongue $=\left(\mathrm{e}^{2}\right)$, as distinguished from ( $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ ), see pp. 1100 and 1279 in this list;-line 14 from bottom, symbol of intermediary of two vowels, or doubtfulness, with inclination to first $=\left(e^{i}\right)$.
p. 1107, col. 2, Scotch close and open ( $\left.e^{1}, \mathrm{e}^{1} ; e_{1}, \mathrm{e}_{1} ; o^{1}, o^{1} ; o_{1}, o_{1}\right)$.
p. 1107, col. 2, last line; symbol of (u) with lips as for $(o)=\left(u_{0}\right)$.
p. 1111, col. 2, symbols for glides, open to close ( $>$ ), close to open ( $<$ ), and absence of glide ( ) ), see p. 998 in this list.
p. 1112, col. 1, glottids; clear in (, e), gradual in (1e).
p. 1114, col. 2, last line ; symbol for rounding by the arehes of the palate as in the parrot's ( $p^{4} u^{4} \mathrm{~s}$ ).
p. 1116, col. 1, symbol of medial length of vowels as in ( $\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{a}}$ ), the superior and inferior vowels being the same, and hence distinct from the symbol of intermediaries as in (ei), p. 1107 in this list;-scale of quantitative symbols (a, a, an, aa, aa ${ }^{\text {a }}$, aaa).
p. 1116, col. 2, symbol for variety of lip rounding, as in $\left(A_{0}\right)=$ tongue for $(A)$, lips for (o), see p. 1107 in this list.
p. 1119, col. 1, l. 2, symbols for palatal explodents $=(\mathrm{kf}, \mathrm{gf})$, see p. 1094 in this list.
p. 1120, col. 2, distinctions of ( $\mathrm{K}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{t} \mathrm{T} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{H}, \mathrm{t}+\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{p}$ ).
p. 1120, col. 1. Mr. Graham Bell's alteration of 'Mr.' Melville Bell's symbols for (s, sh) ;-col. 2, re-arrangement of palaeotypic symbols of cols. 2 and 3 in Bell's table, p. 14. See p. 1341.
p. 1124, col. I, Goodwin's $n g=\left(q_{J}\right)$, possible as original Sanscrit palatal nasal.
p. 1125, col. 2, to p. 1128, col. 1, Bell's rudimental symbols reconsidered and re-symbolised.
p. 1128, col. 1, symbols of inspiration ('i), implosion ('h), click ( $\ddagger \mathrm{h}$ ), fatus ('li), whisper ('h h , voice ('h).
p. 1129, col. 1, abbreviations of these by the omission of the 'support' (h), etc.
p. 1129, col. 2 to p. 1130, col. 1, symbols of glottids, clear (,), check (;), wheezing (h), trilled whecze (£h), bleat (£).
p. 1130, col. 1 and col. 2, symbols of dearees of force, evanescent ( L ), weak (, ), strong (.), abrupt (., ), jerk (11), and its rarieties ( $1 \mathrm{I}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{nh}, \mathrm{l}^{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{Hlh}$ ).
p. 1130 , col. 1, to 1131 , col. 2, symbols of glides, slurs, and breaks, glide ( $>-<$ ), break ( ) , shur ( ) , relative force and pitch by inferior figures and superior accented figures.
p. 1133 , col. 1, 1. 1, symbol of short $l+$ trilled $r=\left({ }^{1} \mathrm{r}\right)$, Japanese intermediary.
p. 1146, col. 1, relative time by supcrior unaccented figures.
p. $114 \overline{7}$, col. 2, symbol of advanecd $(\mathrm{a})=(\mathrm{a})$.
p. 1150, col. 2, 1. 10, symbol of Helmholtz's $u=\left(\mathrm{A}_{u}\right)=$ tongue for ( A ), lips for (u).
p. 1156, col. 2, table of the relative heights of the tongue for rowels.
p. 1174, bottom, table of practical glossic.
p. 1183, table of Pitman and Ellis's phonotypy, 1846 and 1873.
pp. 1189-96. l'rof. Haldeman's analysis of English sounds with palaeotype equiralents.
pp. 1197-1205. Mr. B. H. Smart's analysis of English sounds with palaeotype equivalents serving to identify the palaeotype signs.

p. 1255, table of English dialectal vowels and diphthongs.
pp. 1258-1262, Glossic compared with palacotypic writing of dialectal sounds.
p. 1264, suggestions for marking quantity, force, and pitch, in practical writing.
pp. 1279-80, combination of the signs for primary ( $c$ ), tongue higher ( $e^{1}$ ), tongue lower $\left(e_{1}\right)$, tongue adranced (.e), tongue retracted ( $(e)$; whole back passage widened (e), part in front of palatal arches, only widened $\left(e^{2}\right)$, pharynx only widened $\left(e_{2}\right)$; all widened, but more above than below ( $\mathrm{e}^{2}$ ), or more below than above $\left(e_{2}\right)$; height of tongue remaining, aperture of lips contracted to that for $(\hat{A})$ in $\left(e_{\Delta}\right)$, to that for $(0)$ in ( $e_{0}$ ), and to that for (u) in $\left(e_{u}\right)$; rounding by palatal arches in $\left(\epsilon^{4}\right)$, giring 2916 forms of unnasalised rowels.
pp. 1298-1307, Seventy-five palacotypic rowel symbols grouped in families, and supplied with key-words.
p. 132 s , line 12 from bottom of text, the slightest quiver $=(\mathrm{LL})$.
p. 1333, col. 1, 1. 11, symbol of check puffs $=(\xi)$.
p. 1333, col. 2, symbol of inspircd breath, oral ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ), nasal ( ${ }^{6}$ ) $)$, orinasal ( ${ }^{( } \mathrm{FA}$ ) fluttering ( ${ }_{i j}$ ) and snoring ( ${ }^{\circ} \cdot 1$ ) ).
p. 1334, col. 2, 1. 9, symbol of bleated consonants ( $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{b}}, \varepsilon_{\varepsilon} \mathrm{d}, \varepsilon_{\mathrm{g}}$ ).
p. 1334, note on symbolisation, shewing the intention of palaeotypic as distinct from systematic symbolisation.
pp. 1341-4, new table of palaeotypic equivalents for Mr. Melville Bell's Visible Speech symbols, with subsequent explanations.
pp. 1346-9, new table of palacotypic equivalents to Prof. Haldeman's consonants with subsequent explanations.
pp. 1353-7, table of Prince L. L. Bonaparte's consonants with palacotypic equivalents, of which 154 marked * are new combinations of symbols already explained, and in some few cases entirely new symbols.

## NOTICE.

When Part III. was published, I hoped to complete this protracted work in Part IV. But as I proceeded, I found it necessary to examine existing English prouunciation, received and dialectal, in so much greater detail than I had contemplated, and to enter upon so much collateral matter of philological interest, that I was soon compelled to divide that Part into two. Even the first of these parts, owing to other literary engagements into which I had entered when much briefer work was anticipated, could not be completed by the close of 1874, as required for the Early English Text Society, and hence a further divisiou has become necessary.

Part IV. now contains the Illustrations of the xvir th and xviri th centuries, an account of Received English Pronunciation, and the introductory matter to the new collections of English Dialects which have been made for this work, in order to register dialectal pronunciation with a completeness hitherto unattained and even unattempted, as a necessary basis for understanding the pronunciation underlying our Early English orthography, which was wholly dialectal. These collections themselves, which have been already made to a sufficient and by no means scanty extent, will form Part V., to be published in 1875 . That Part will therefore be devoted to English Dialects. After it is completed, I contemplate allowing at least two years to elapse before commencing Part the Sixth and (let us hope) the Last. If I have life and strength (which is always problematical for a man who has turned sixty, and has already many times suffered from overwork), I propose in this last Part to supplement the original investigations, made so many years ago, when the scope of the subject was not sufficiently grasped, the materials were not so ready to hand, and the scientific method and apparatus were not so well understood. The supplementary investigations which have been made by others, especially Mr. Sweet in his History of English Sounds, Prof. Payne and Mr. Furnivall on the use of Final E, the late Prof. Hadley on the quantity of English rowels, and Prof. Whitney in the second part of his Linguistic and Oriental Studies, and others, with the criticisms friendly (as they mostly are) or hostile (as Dr. Weymouth's) which my book has called forth, will be examined and utilised as far as possible, and by their means I hope to arrive at occasionally more precise and more definite conclusions than before, or at any rate to assign the nature and limits of the uncertainty still left. I have no theory to defend. Many hypotheses have necessarily been started in the course of this work, to represent the facts collected; but my chief endeavour has been, first to put those facts as accurately as possible before the reader in the
words of the original reporters, and secondly to draw the conclusions which they seemed to warrant in connection with the other ascertained laws of phonology. But as, first, the facts are often convered in language difficult to understand, and as, secondly, the whole science of phonology is rery recent, and the observations aud experiments on which it has to be based are still accumulating, -so that for example my own views have had to undergo many changes during the compilation of this work as the materials for forming them increased,-my conclusions may be frequently called in question. Nothing is so satisfactory to myself as to see them overhauled by competent hands and heads, and no one can be more happy than myself to find a guide who can put me right on doubtful points. Nön ego, sed rēs mea!

Iu the present Part I have endeavoured to make some additions to our phonological knowledge, and I belice that my examinations of aspiration (pp. 1125-1146), and my theory of fractures and junctures (pp. 1307-1317), already briefly communicated to the Philological Society, are real additions, which will be found to affect a vers wide philological area. The examinations of living Indian pronunciation (pp. 1136-1140), though merely elementary, together with the account of ancient Indian alphabetics as collected, through Prof. Whitney's translation, from the Atharva Veda Prâtiçâkhya (pp. 1336-1338), may also prove of use in Aryan philology. But one of the most important additions that I have been able to make to our philological knowledge and apparatus consists of those extraordinary identifications of Vowel Sounds in forty-five European languages, each guaranteed by an example (pp. 1298-1307), which, together with an almost exhaustive list of the consonants found in actual use (pp. 1352-1357), I owe to the linguistic knowledge and kindness of Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte, who has worked for me as hard and ungrudgingly as any of my other kind contributors, whose names (quae nunc praescribere longum est) are each giren as their contributions occur, and-if ever I reach that ultima Thūlē of authorship, my much-nceded, and still more dreaded indices-will be duly chronieled alphabetically and referred each to his own work. The number of helpers-ladies I am glad to think, as well as gentlemen, aye, and men and women labouring with hands as well as with head-who have so kindly and unstintingly helped me in this work, and especially in the collections which will form the staple of Part V., serre to shew not only the unexpected interest which so many feel in the subject, but the rast amount of good fellowship and co-operative feeling by which alone we can hope to build up the gigantic edifice of philology.

As my Table of Contents will shew, the present Part consists of a series of essays bearing upon the history and present state and linguistic relations of our language, which either appear for the first time, or are put into a convenient form for reference from sources not readily accessible to ordinary readers. For the English of the Eighteenth century Lediard's little known book, for a knowledge of which I am indebted to Prof. Payne, gives much interesting
matter (pp. 1040-1049); and Noah Webster's account of American pronunciations nearly a century ago, derived from forgotten essays of that lexicographer (whose dictionary has been so recently imported in revised editions that few think him to be so ancient), make a new link in the chain binding the Seventeenth to the Eighteenth centuries (pp. 1064-1070). The examination of Received Pronunciation, as represented by Mr. B. H. Smart, Mr. Melville Bell, Prof. Haldeman, and Mr. Henry Sweet (pp. 1090-1207), and the actual observations on unstudied pronunciations as noted by myself at the moment of hearing, and contrasted with my own usages (pp. 1208-1214), form a new datum in phonology, because they enable us to estimate the real amount of floating diversity of pronunciation at any time, out of which, though unrecorded by orthography, the pronunciation of a future generation erystallises, only to be again dissolved by a fresh menstrumm, and appear in still newer forms. We are thus put into a position to understand those changes which go on among even the educated, and "hear the (lingnistic) grass grow." The accounts of existing differences in American and Irish promunciation (pp. 1217-1243), which are mainly Seventeenth century survivals as modified by enviromment, though necessarily very imperfect, bring still more strongly to light existing diversities where there is appreciable sameness, that is, diversities which interfere so little with intelligibility of speech, that they have been hitherto disregarded, or ridiculed, or seouted by grammarians and linguists, instead of being acknowledged as the real " missing links," which connect the widely separated strata of our exceedingly imperfect philological record. Beyond such initiatory forms of transition, are the past records of dialectal variety verging into species. For English-with the exception of Dr. Gill's most interesting little report on the dialeets as known to him in 1621 (pp. 1249-1252)-these are reserved for Part V., but I have in the present Part IV. collected some of the results, and shewn their general philological bearing, as well as their special connection with the Early English Pronunciation, which is the main source and aim of my investigations; and I have also given the phonetic theories necessary to appreciate them more thoroughly (pp. 1252-1357). Thanks to the labours of the great Tentonic linguist Schmeller, I have also been able to shew the variations which interpenetrate one great branch of the High German dialects, the Bavarian (pp. 1357-1368) ; and, thanks to the extraordinary collection made by Winkler, just published in Dutch, I have been fortunate enough to give English readers a general view of the present state of those Low German and Friesian dialects to which our own Anglosaxon language belongs, as they have developed under merely native influences, without the introduction of any strange element, like Celtic, Norman French, and Old Danish (pp. 1378-1428). These modern dialectal forms are invaluable for a study of our Early English dialectal forms, for, althongh chronologically contemporaneous with the English of the Nineteenth century, they are linguistically several hundred years older. And
they enable us to appreciate the state of our own English dialects, which are in fact merely a branch of the same, left untouched by Winkler, because, hike our own, these Low German dialects (with the exception of modern Duteh, which is a literary form of provincial Hollandish), have developed entirely without the control of the grammarian, the schoolmaster, and the author. To philologists generally, this wild, unkempt development of language is very precious indeed. The theory of vegetable transformation was developed by Goethe from a monstrosity. The theory of linguistic transformation can only be properly studied from monstrosities naturally evolved, not artificially superinduced. And for pronunciation this is still more emphatically true than for construction and rocabulary, for pronunciation is far more sensitive to transforming influences. Hence I consider that my work is under the greatest obligation to Winkler's, and that in devoting so much space to an abstract of his specimens, reduced to the same palaeotypic expression of sound which I have employed throughout, I have becn acting most strictly in the interests of Early English Pronunciation itself.

Let me, indeed, particularly emphasise the fact that not even the slightest deviation has been made from the course of my investigation into English pronunciation by taking these dialects into consideration. As Mr. Green well says at the opening of his excellent Short IIistory of the English People (which appeared as these pages were passing through the press): -
"For the fatherland of the English race we must look far away from England itself. In the fifth century after the birth of Christ, the one country which bore the name of England was what we now call Sleswick. . . . . The dwellers in this district were one out of three tribes, all belonging to the same Low German branch of the Teutonic family, who at the moment when history discovers them were bound together into a confederacy by the ties of a common blood and a common speech. To the north of the English lay the tribe of the Jutes, whose name is still preserved in their distriet of Jutland. To the south of them the tribe of Saxons wandered over the sand-flats of Holstein, and along the marshes of Friesland and the Elbe. How close was the union of these tribes was shewn by their use of a common name, while the choice of this name points out the tribe which at the moment when we first meet them must have been the strongest and most powerful in the confederacy. Although they were all known as Saxons by the Roman people who touched them only on their southern border where the Saxons dwelt, and who remained ignorant of the very existence of the English or the Jutes, the three tribes bore among themselves the name of the central tribe of their league, the name of Englishmen."

It is mainly owing to the dialectal differences of these tribes and places of their settlements in Britain (the history of which is given in an excellent epitome by Mr. Green) that the character of our dialects, old and new, was determined. But they did not all come over to Britain. Over the same Sleswiek and Holstein, Jutland and Friesland, dwelt and still dwell descendants of the same people. Philologically we all know the great importance of the few ancient monuments which have remained of their speceh preserved in monastic or legal literature. But these, as well as the oldest records of English in our own England (which I have hitherto called, and to prevent confusion shall continue to call

Anglosaxon), fail to give us enough foothold for understanding their living sounds. These we can only gradually and laboriously elicit from any and every source that offers us the slightest hope of gain. None appears so likely as a comparison of the sounds now used in speech orer the whole region where the English tribes grew up, and where they settled down, that is, the districts so admirably explored by Winkler and those which we shall have before us in Part V. During the whole of this investigation my thoughts have been turned to eastern English for light. The opportune appearance of Winkler just before my own investigations could be published, was a source of intense delight to me, and though I was at the time overloaded with other work, I did not in the slightest degree grudge the great labour of abstracting, transliterating, writing out, and correcting those 50 pages at the end of Part IV., which indicate the nature of this treasure-trove, and I feel sure that all who pursue the subject of this work as a matter of scientific philology, and linguistic history, will be as much delighted as myself at the possession of a store-house of facts, invaluable for the investigation before them, and feel the same gratitude as I do to Winkler for his three years' devotion in collecting, arranging, and publishing his great Dialecticon.

Such are the principal divisions of the present Part and their bearing on each other. For some subsidiary investigations I must refer to other books which I have had to pass through the press this year, and which are published almost at the same time as the present pages. Helmholtz's great treatise, On Sensations of Tone as a Physiological Basis for the Theory of Mrusic (shortly to be published by Longman and Co., from my English version, with notes and additions), contains the acoustical foundations of all phonology, and without studying the first two parts of this book, it is impossible to arrice at a due estimate of the nature of vowel sounds and their gradations (see below, pp. 1275-1281), and hence of the physiological cause of their extraordinary transformations. Although the preparation of my version and edition of Helmholtz's work has robbed me of very many hours which would in natural course have been devoted to the present, every one of those hours has been to me a step forward in the knowledge of sound, as produced by human organs and appreciated by human nerves, and hence in the knowledge of speech sounds and their appreciation by hearers. As such I recommend the work-the outcome of many years' labour by one of the first physiologists, physicists, and mathematicians of the present day-to the most attentive consideration of all scientific phonologists.

The other work is one of much smaller size and very little pretension. It is called Practical Hints on the Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin (published by Macmillan \& Co.), and is the recast of a lecture which I delivered to classical teachers list June. It docs not compete with Corssen's work in investigating the actual force of the Latin letters (except final MI), but it takes up the two important questions of quantity, and musical accent in speech, and
endeavours to give practical exercises for becoming familiar with them, so as to appreciate a rhythm dependent on "length" of syllable and embellished by "piteh-accent," as distinguished frou rhythm due to "force-accent" and embellished by "pitcheniphasis." It also contains a delicate investigation of the nature of the final MI and the meaning of its disappearance, which may be of assistance in appreciating the disappearance of final N in English, and the disappearance of other letters in English and other languages so far as their natural sounds are concerned, and their simultaneous survival as affecting adjacent sounds. As such I must consider it to be an excursus of the present work, necessarily separated from it by the different linguistic domain to which it belongs.

The materials for l'art V. are, as I have mentioned, all collected, some of them are even in type, and others made ready for press, but it was physically impossible to prepare them in time for Part IV., and the nature of the typography, requiring great care in revision, does not allow of the least linrry without endangering the value of all the work, which is nothing if not trustworthy. The extreme pressure of literary work which has lain on me since I began preparing this Part in March, 1873, and which has not allowed me even a week's respite from daily deskwork, must be my excuse if marks of haste occasionally appear in the present pages. It will be erident to any one who turns them over, that the time required for their careful presentment in type was far out of proportion to their superficial area. And a very large part of the time which I have devoted to this work has been bestowed upon the collection of materials, involving long correspondence and many personal interviews and examinations of speakers-which occupy no space in print, while their result, originally intended to appear in the present Part, has been relegated to the next. Hence, with a cry of mea culpa, alièna culpa, I crave indulgence for ineritable shortcomings.
A. J. E.

25, Argyll Road, Kensinoton,
Christmas, 1874.

## CHAPTER IX.

## Illustrations of the Pronunciation of English during the Seventeenth Century.

## § 1. John Wilkins's Phonetic Writing.

Dr. Wilkins, while Dean of Ripon (he was subsequently Bishop of Chester), ${ }^{1}$ after inventing a phonetic alphabet for the purpose of giving a series of sounds corresponding to his Real Character, gives as a specimen of its use the Lord's Prayer and Creed, "written according to our present pronunciation." This is on p. 373 of his work, but on the occasion of his comparing the Lord's Prayer in 49 languages (which he unfortunately does not represent phonetically) with his own Philosophical Language (erroneously numbered 51 instead of 50 on his p. 435), he adds the phonetic representation of the English version, which differs in a few words from the former copy, no doubt through insufficient revision of the press, and omits the final doxology.

In the present transcription into palaeotype, I assume his rowels on his p. 363 to be ( 1 АА, æ ææ, е ее, i ii, оо, и uи, ә әә), although I believe that he pronounced $(0, i, u)$ in closed accented syllables rather than ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u})^{2}$. His diphthongs will be represented as he has done on his p. 363 ; his so-called diphthougs $u$, ४8, on his p. 364, meaning (yi, wu), will be written ( $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}-\mathrm{u}$ ), to distinguish them from the long vowels (ii, uu). He has no systematic method of representing the long vowels. In the Creed and first version of the Lord's Prayer, he uses a grave accent to express length; in the second version of the Lord's Prayer, he uses an acute accent. Again, the acute accent in the first version and the grave in the second represent the accent on a short vowel in a closed syllable. The o seems to have been considered always long, as no example of short $o$ is given on his p. 363, although it is once marked long in rò f in the Creed. It will be always transliterated by (oo). The consonants were doubled without any special intention. The word body towards the end of the Creed he has written bady, evidently a mistake for $\mathrm{b} a \mathrm{~d} \iota$, as he does not use $y$ in any sense, but employs a variation of it for ( $\partial$ ). Virgin is evidently an error for Virdzhin. All the errors, however, will be given in the following transcript, and the various readings of the second copy of the Lord's Prayer will be added in brackets. Afterwards will be given

[^0]in palacotype the pronunciation which Wilkins probably intended to symbolize．As this short speeimen is the only instance that I have discovered of continuous phonetic writing in the syifth century，it has been thought best to give a minutely accurate copy in the first instance．One point only has not been attended to． Wilkins intended to represent（i）by the Greek $\iota$ ，and has generally done so in the second version of the Lord＇s Prayer，but in the first version and Creed i 1 are commonly used in place of $\ell$ ．As this is a mere accident of printing，I have replaced $\iota, 1, \mathrm{i}$ by the single letter（i）．${ }^{1}$ Ilis diæresis when written over a vowel will be replaced by ，made from ），before the vowel．

Transcript of Wilkins＇s Phonetic Orthography．

## The Lorld＇s Prayer．

fur faxelher muitsh ort in не＇ven，hælloo jed［hallooed］bi dhoinææゥ［nasm］，dhoi ki qdom ［kiqdom］kom，dhoi nill［uil］bi don，in erth æz it iz in ne ven， giv as this dxi our dreili bred， æ日，fargiv［fargiv］．əs our trespessez æz ui fargi v them dhet trespres［trespess］ægeeinst os，æud leed as nat intu temptre－ sian，bot deli＇ver as fram ivil ［ii•vil］，far dhoin iz the kiqdim， the poujer end dhe glari，far ever ænd ever，ZEmen．

## The Creed．

fi biliiv in Gad the fexedher almoiti mæexker af he ven and erth，ænd in Dzhesos Kroist uiz oonli son our Lard，mu－u næz kanseeved boi the mooli Goost， birn af dhe Virgin Mææri， soffered onder Pansios Poiliat， uæz kriusifi，ed ded and bori jed． Hi dessended intu mel，the thard drei ui roos ægrein fram dhe ded． Hi æssended intu me＇ven，nucer ni sitteth ret the roit nend af Gad the faredher，fram mucens mi shal kom tu dzhotzh the
${ }_{1}$ This mark will in future be em－ ployed in place of（，），to denote dis－ continuity or absence of audible glide． The different kinds of continuity and diseontimity will be disenssed and more completely symbolised in Chap．

Conjectured Meeming of Wiffins＇s Phonctic Orthography． The Lord＇s Prayer．
gur fææ ther whitsh ært in нет＇еn，нæl－ooed bii dhəi nææm， dhoi kiq dom kom，dhai wil bi don，in erth $x z$ it iz in mer＇en， gir os this dæei aur dæi 1 l bred， ænd forgiv os our tres＇pæsez æz wii forgiv dhem dhæt trespes ægæinst＇os，ænd leed os not in＇tu temtææ sion，bat deliv－er os from ii $\cdot$ ril，for dhoin iz dhe kiq－dom， dho pou＇er end the glorri，for ev＇er ænd ev＇er．Eæ＇men．

## The Creed．

ai biliiv in God the frex dher Aslməi ti，mææ•ker of нет＇en ænd eith，ænd in Dzhee＇zas Kroist uiz oon $1 i$ son our Lord， whun wæz konscer－ed bai dhe noo－li Goost，born of dhe Verdzhin Mar＇ri，sof $\cdot$ ered on＇der P’n＇sios Forilat，wrez kriussifeced ded rend bor ie d．Hii desend $\cdot \mathrm{ed}$ in＇tu nel，dhe thord dxi ni rooz ægæin• from the ded．Hii æsend•ed in＇tu neven，wheer mii sit et th ret dhe roit mond of God dhe frex dher， from whens uii shasl kom tu

XII．${ }^{\text {j }} 1$ ，when considering Mr．MIelville Bell＇s Key Words of modern English pronunciation，under WH．The old （，）will then receive the distinctive scnse of the＇clear glottid．＇
kuik ænd dhe ded. rii biliiv in the Hooli Goost, dhe Hooli kæthoolik tshortsh, dhe kammiunian af Seeints, dhe fargivness af sinz, dhe resorreksioon af dhe bædi, ænd loif everlæstiq. Emen.
dzhorlzh dhe kwik and dhe ded. gi biliiv. in the nooli Goost, dhe woolli kæth olik tshartsh, dhe komiurnion of Sxints, tho forgiv•nes of $\sin z$, dhe rezareksion of the bod $\bullet i$, rend loif evərlæst iq . Ææmen.

## § 2. Notewortly Pronunciations of the Seventeenth Century.

The transition period of the xvirth century, reaching from the death of Shakspere to the death of Dryden, presents considerable interest. It is remarkable for the number of "slovenly" pronunciations as they would now be called, which were recognized as in use either by orthoepists or orthographers, the former to eorrect them, the latter to determine the "proper" spelling from the "abusive" sound. Spelling was in a state of transition also, and many orthographies recommended by the would-be authorities of this period are now discarded. Our sources take therefore two different forms, one determining the sound from the letters, and the other the letters from the sound. To the latter belong especially those lists of Words Like and Unlike, which Butler appears to have commenced (suprà p. 876), and which have ever since occupied a prominent place in our spelling-books. Great importance was always attached to the difference of spelling when the sound remained, or was thought to remain, the same, as this difference was-nay, is-thought by many to present perfect means of determining meaning and derivations. It would have been desirable to fuse the two methods into one, but the indications, lax enough in rocabularies, were far too rague in the other lists, and hence they have had to be separated.

## 1. Pronouncing Vocabclary of the Seventeenth Century, colxfcted from Wallis 1653 , Wilkins 1668, Price 1668, Cooper 1685, Exglish Scholar 1687, Miege 1688, Jones 1701.

A pronouncing rocabulary of the xvir th century, though as much needed as one of the xyith, is much more difficult to compile. For the xyith century we possess a large collection of phonctically written words, which had only to be extracted and arranged, after their notation had been reduced to a single system. For the xrir th century I have not been able to discover any systematic phonctic method of writing, except in Wilkins's Real Character, where it is applied to a very small collection of English words. The other writers have more or less precise or lax methods of representing individual sounds, but rery rarely indeed combine their symbols so as to spell out complete words. Their observations generally tend to shew the pronunciation of some particular groups of letters, principally vowels, in the words cited as examples, and the pronunciation of the rest of the word has to be collected, as well as possible, -which is often very ill,-from similar obserrations respecting the other groups of letters in the word. This arose from
the authors writing for those who, being well aequainted with the various pronunciations of the words, only required to have one fixed upon for approval, or who knew how to spell the word except in the individual point under consideration. To a learner in the xixth century such a course, howerer, presents great diffienlties, mud in many cases I have felt in doubt as to the correctness of the pronunciation of the whole word, although that of a portion of the worl was almost certain. In other cases, especially in the important works of Priee and Jones, much difficulty arose from the ambiguity of their symbols. Thus if one were to say that ie was sounded as $i$ in lie and sieve, it would be difficult to guess that the first was (loi) and the sound (siv), although ( $0 \mathrm{i}, i$ ) are two common sounds of $i$. Still the results are very interesting, becanse in this xwn th century the pronunciation of English altered rapidly, and many words were sounded in a style, which, owing to the influence of our orthocpists of the xyirth and xixth centuries, is now generally condemned, although well known among the less educated classes. It may be doubted whether our language has gained in strength, as it has certainly gained in harshness and in difficultr, by the orthographical system of orthoepy which it has lately been the fashion to insist upon, but as such a system is thoroughly artifieial, and results frequently in the production of sounds which never formed an organically developed part of our language, it is rather to be regretted than admired.

The following is not a complete rocabulary, as that would be far too extensire, but it embraces all those words in Wallis, Wilkins, Price, Cooper, English Scholar, Miege and Jones, which struck me as being in some respeet noteworthy, because they illustrate some Elizabethan usage or shew a transition from the xrith century, or a peculiar but lost sound, or an early instance of some wellknown sound now heard, or give the authority for some pronunciations now well known but considered vulgar or inclegant, or exhibit what were even in the xuit th century reprobated as barbarisms or rulgarities.

1) Wallis does not furnish a long list, but the rowels in the accented syllables which he gives may be depended upon; in some cases of consonants and unaccented rowels I do not feel so secure.
2) Wilkise's list is rery short, and has been already given in the example of his writing. In this rocabulary the words are respelled to signify the sounds he probably meant to conver.
3) Priee is uncertain, sometimes eren in the aecented syllables, owing to the defects of his notation. His short o has been assumed as ( 0 ), but throughout this century ( $\mathrm{A}, 0$ ) are difficult to distinguish, and perhaps (a) precailed more widely than at present. Even now ratch, want, are perhaps more often called (wotsh, wont) Than (watsh, Want), the latter sounds being rather American than English, which, again, is to some extent eridence of their use in the xyir th century.
4) Cooprr is very strict but very peculiar in his rowel system, which has been sufficiently considered, suprà p. 84.
5) "The complete English Scholar, by a young Schoolmaster," 8th ed. 1687, contains some words re-spelled to shew what the author considers their correct pronunciation, for a list of which I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. Payne. These re-spellings I have generally annexed.
6) Miege being a Frenchman, and eridently but imperfectly seizing the English sounds, has to be interpreted by endeavouring to discover (not what were the sounds he meant to convey by his notation, but) the sounds which were likely to have excited in him the sensations betrayed by lis letters. This is of course a difficult and a delicate operation, and I may have often blundered over it, so that I have frequently felt it best to anmex either his own notation or the gist of his remark.
7) Jones furnishes the most extensive list, and in every respect the most remarkable part of the rocabnlary, because his object was to lead any person who could speak, to spell, and therefore he has chronicled numerons unrecognized or "abusive" pronunciations besides those which were "cnstomary and fashionable." By adding such observations as "abusively, sometimes, often, commonly, sounded by some, better," I have tried to conver a correct impression as to the generality of the pronnciation, so far as Jones's own statements go. I have not always felt perfectly confident of the correctness of my interpretation, owing to his ambiguons notation, and I am not quite clear as to the distinction which he draws between $i t$, bit, which should be (it, bit)-a distinction of which no other author takes any notice; the first he considers as the short of $e e$ (ii), and treats of nnder $e e$, the second he treats of in conjunction with $\bar{\imath}$ (ai).

The following abbreviations are employed:

| C | Cooper, 1685. | P Price, 1668. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| E | English Scholar, 1687. | W Wallis, 1653. |
| J | Jones, 1701. | Wk Wilkins, 1668. |
| II | Miege, 1688. |  |

A hyphen after a combination shews that it is initial ; before it, that it is final, as emp-, -our. Small capitals imply the older spelling used by the next following authority. The alphabetical arrangement follows the present orthography. Words not wholly in Italics are to be read as in palæotypic spelling. The position of the stress is almost always marked from conjecture.

## A

A, s'appelle et se prononce ai ææ, æ M a A ind. art, se prononce en a court M Aaron Weeron J ab- b- often as bæet for æbææt' J abbey æb•e P, æb• $i \mathrm{C}$ abet bet J abide æbaid $\cdot \mathrm{C}$, baid J abigail æb•igel æb 'igeel J able æx bal etc. P, Eebll C aboard æbuurd $\cdot \mathbf{C}, \mathrm{J}$
about æbəut- C, bəut J above æbəv• P, C, M, bəv J
abroad æbraAd• J
abrupt æbrop often J
abundance bon dens J
noutt bat J
acc- k- frequently J
accompt ækəunt•J
accouticed skuu'tord C
account əkəunt' J .
accountant koun'rent often .J accumulatc kiu miulet often J
ach s. xtsh P
ache r , arek P
ached AK'D arokt C
acom àe korn C
aeq- k - often J
acquit kwit J
acre eekor $\mathbf{C}$
action = aicchon ak sh . M
adhere wdueer. J
adieu ædiu• 1', ædin C
adjoum sedzhərn ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
adventure adventor C
atfairs afeerz C
afford efuurd ${ }^{-} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
ajoaid Affratd efeerd, freed J
again ægen• ægeen ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{J}$
against ægreinst Wk, rgeenst P ,
gæinst J
age eedzh C
agnail :en'eel J
ai ay =eci, generally P
ai. eer C
air-y EEr-c $\mathbf{C}$
aid werd eed J
al- l- often as loon for reloon• J
alarm lærəm usual J
Albans :AA benz J
alcmbic lem•bik usual J
Ailgier Eldzheer Eldzhiir• J
all aal W, J
Alcxander Alesæen dor J
all Aal comme un a François un pou long M
alley æl $\cdot \mathrm{e} \mathrm{P}, \mathfrak{x l} \cdot i \mathrm{C}$
almanack AA menæk J
almond $\mathrm{AA} \cdot \mathrm{m}$ ənd $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}, æ æ \cdot m ə n$ a-mum E , AA•mən J
almoner rem•nor, asm•ner J
almost am'ust barbarè C, AA•moost J
alms Aanzz J
am- m-often J
ambiguous æmbig•eos sometines $\mathbf{J}$
ambs Aamz J
aincndment æmen ment J
anatomy næt'omi often J
anchor $=$ emiker: $x q \cdot k$ kr MI
ancient antient wnshent C, anncient
rn'shent an comme a simple anglois M
andiron rondairarn J
Anglesey ※q.g'lse P
anguish $æ q \cdot{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{g} u$ ish J
arin- n - often as neel ameal
amoyance anorance noiwns often, nius'æns sometimes J
апниal æn'wl occasionally J
anoint ænaint $x$ naint C
anon :onon enten J
another :enərlh $\cdot \mathrm{r}$, often nodh•or J
ansucer: æn sar C, Мі, J
anthem :untheem $\cdot \mathrm{J}$
ancient antient anshent C
antique æn'tik C
ap- p - often, as pokrifæ apocrypha J
aposteme impost'ium J
apophthegm APOTIILGM $x p$ othem, may be æpotheg'm J
apothecary apoth ikori, pot ikəri usuallyJ
appear æpiir P, J
appctite ap eti abusively J
apprehend aprend J
approntice pren'tis uswally J
approve æрrav. P
apricot æp-rikək J
"aron æreparn C, E, M, J
ar- r-aften, as rith metik arithmetic J
-ar -әr C, -er -or J
Archibald Eretshibaal J
-ard -erd -ord J
are eer C, ær, not eer J
Armagh Frmm J
Arnold Ar'nol J
arrand aareond J
arrant Aarænt J
arrear æriir $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{C}}$
arrears reerz J
arrest rest J
arrow ær u $\mathbf{P}$
Arther Erethir J
artichoak нær titshook J
artificial rertifish eel, and in similar. words ci- = sh C
-ary -eri J
as- s - sometimes as ston ish astonish J
as AZ en a court M
aspuragus spær'regəs J
aspen æs pon J
assume æshuum• J
asthma æs'mæ J
assure æshuur- J
atheism ææ'theezm, ææ thoizm J
atheist ææ theest, ææ thoist J
att- t-as people are apt to sound teent for attaint J
attomey ætarn $\cdot \mathrm{P}$, AtTOURNE ætrrniC
athwart æthort. J
auburn oo-barn, may be at born J
auction ook shon, may be AAk•shon J
audible Au'debl, AA debl negligonter C
audience oo diens may be AA diens, sometimes AA•dens J
audit oo dit, may be aA $\cdot \mathrm{dit} \mathrm{J}$
audit-or-y audet-or-e, AA dit-or-e negligenter C
augment Augment', A sgment-negligenter. C, oogment, may bo sagment• J
axgury au'gori, AA.gori negligenter C
aunt =aint wnt M, ant AAnt J
auricular Aurik-iular, asrik•iulor negligonter C
anstere Aasteer- J
authentic authentick authen'tik, Asthen'tik negligenter C
author Aa'tar J
authority authar ete, asthar iti negligenter C, astor ${ }^{\text {titi }} \mathbf{J}$
av- V - often as vasht avaunt J
avanteourier vantcurrier yæn'kæriir•J
avarice æv•əris J
aver æver" æveer ævæær' e se prononce ai M
aviary ææ•vori sometimes J
award æward a comme en français M
awl asl W
axletree Eks 'tri facilitatis eausa $\mathbf{C}$
ay æi C
azure æsh $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r} \mathrm{J}$

## B

bable baa b'l en a long M
backward bæk•ard J
baeon bææk n J
bailiff bee lii J
bain been balneum C
bait bæit C
baker beek $\partial \mathrm{r}$ C
balderdash baA dərdæsh J
baldric batrik J
balk bask P, J
balm baam J
balsam baal'sæm en a long M
Banbury Bæm-bəri J
bane bææn TV, beezn C
banish bæn $e$ esh C
bankrupt bæqk'rop often J
banquet bæq-kwet J
baptism bæb-tizm sometimes $\mathbf{J}$
bar bær W, C
Barbara Ber-beræ = Bər-bəræ J
bare bæær W, beezr C
bargain bær-geen P , bærgen C
barge bæærdzh C
barley bær $1 i$ C
baron bær'An C
barrow bær"u P
basin bæs'n P, bason beesn C
bastile bæstiil. J
bate bææt W
be bii P, bee C, M, J
be- bii J
beaton beekn C
beadle biid•l J
bear ${ }^{\circ}$ v.s. beer C, P
bear $\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{s}}=$ bair bæær un ours M
beard beerd C, J, berd P, M, J
beast beest W
beastly bees 1 li J
beaten beet $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ M
beau beaw biu J
Beauclare Biu-klæær J
Beaufort Biu•fort J
Beaumaris Biumær'is J
Beaumont Biu'mont J
beautify biu•tifai J
beauty beu'ti rectius, quidam biu'ti $\mathbb{W}$, billti M
because bikææz bikaaz. J
becn bin J
begin biigsin. W
behavion• biнææv•ә J J
behold biнuuld C
behove biнәv' P, biнuuv C, M
bellows bel-ooz C
bellows bel -ooz, facilitatis causa bel-es C
Belus Bee-las J
bench bentsh P
beneath bineedh $\cdot \mathbf{P}$
benign binig-an J
Berks Bærks J
besmear bismiir C, M
besom biis•m M
besought bisoot• J
betoken bitook'n C
betroth bitroth• P
beyond bisand C, bison' J
bezoar bez'r J
bible baib-l C
bier beer biir J
Bilbao Bil•boo, Bil•buu J
bird bord P, C
bittem bittour bet'or C
birth barth C
biscuit bis'ket J
bishop bash'ap barbarè $\mathrm{C},=$ boshop bash•əp pas du bel usage M, bush•əp sometimes J
blain blein bleen J
blaspheme blæsfeem• J
blast blææst C
blazon bleez'n C
blea blee J
blear-eyed bliir-aid P, C, M
blind blaind C
blithe blith blaith C
blomary blam-əri J
blood bloud blad P, ou $=0$ court $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{J}$
blood-i-ly blud-i-li C
bcar buur C
board boord buurd tabula C, J
boil boil, bwoil (bwoil ?) noпnипquam W, bail bail C, buuil, sometimes bail J
bold boold nonnunquam bould W, buuld C, boould J
bole boul P
bolster boul-stor P, buul•stor C, booul-stor J
bolt boult booult J
bomb buum J
bombast bambæst• J
bone boon C
book buuk C
boor boar buur J
boose bowze bauz C
boot buut C
Bordeaux Bourdeaux Buurdoo. J
borne buurn bajulatus C , =bôrme boorn porté M
born barn parturitus C , = bârn basin né M
borough = boro bar:a M
borrage bor'iedzh J
borrow bor u P, baaraa boreas com J
bosom baz:am J
bough bau, boo J
bourn buurn rivulus $\mathbf{C}$
bow boo arcus, bua torqueo C
boul nove baul globus $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$, Bow boul poculam $\mathrm{W}^{\top}$, hole buul patera C, yoll booul J
boy boi, bwoi (buvi?) nonnunquam W, bu'ai dissyllabum C
bought bast C , boot bast sometimes boft J
brain brxin C
brazier brasier brresh'or, sometimes brææzear J
break brcek P, breek C
breakfast brek'wæst in some countrics J
breastplate bresplecet J
breviary brevori sometimes J
brew bryy W
breuess breu'es $P$
bridge bredzh J
Bristol Bris'too P, J
broad bratd C, oa=â M, J
broil bruil brail C, brail sometimes J
brotherkood brodh'orhod C
brought broot $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$
bruise briuz C, briuz J
bruit briut J
Buckingham Bok•iqæm J
build bild C, biuld J
bull bul M, J
bullion bol-Jon C
bumble bce am-bl bii J
buoy swoy bui C, boi, buui J
bur bar C
burden bar'don J
burlesque barlezg• borlesk• J
burt mint brit J
burthen bar dhen P
bury ber $i$ C, ber* M
busy busae bizi C, M
business biz'nes C
but bat o court M

## C

cabin kxb•en J
Caiaphas Kee•fas J
caitiff kxi-tif C
caldron kas'dron kaA'dorn J
calf kaAf C, J
call kaal W
calm kxlin P
campaign kæmpreen• J
can kjan W, kien C
candle kæn•l J
cane keen C
cannot krent J
cunoe CaNoo kænuu • J
canonicr kænoneer' kænoniir • J
cap, kxp, en ai bref ou cn e ouvert M
capable kee'pæbl C, kææ•bebl occ. J
capacity kxpæs'ete $\mathbf{C}$
cape keeap ©
caper kee'por C
capon keep'n C, kxæp'n o se mange M
car kær C
card kæærd C
care keerr C , = caire kæær M
carcd kxerd $=$ card C
carect cankein kæreer $\mathbf{P}$
carking kærerk-iq C
carp kæærp C
carriagc kær'ædzh C, kær"edzh occ. J
carrion kær'on P , ker'en occasionally J
case keeas C
cashicr cashire kæshiir- J
cast kææst C
casualty kææz•ælti sometimes J
caterer kee tarar C
Catharine Kæth•ern E, Fæt•orn J
catholic krtholik Wk
caul kasl W
cautse kanz comme a firançais M
causeway kaA'ze P
cautiouskau'shas, kaA•shasnegligenter C
cavilling kæv•liq J
ce-see- J
celestial selest'Jæl, and in similar words $-s t i=-s t J C$
consure seus'or C, sen'shor J
centaury sen'tari sen taari $J$
contury sen'tari $\mathbf{C}$, sen'tari $\mathbf{J}$
certain sertron? ai comme en certain M (exception)
chaldron tshaA dron $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$, tshaA dorn J
chair tshæer tsheer J
chalk tshank C
chamois shamois shæm•ii J
chamberlain tshæm-berleen $\mathbf{P}$
Chandois Shrn'dois abusively J
chandler tshrn'ler J
chaplain tsheppleen P
chaps tshops abusively J
Charles Tshaarlz barbarè C
charriot cuaniot tshæret occasionally J
chasten tshæs'n J
cheer chear tshiir $P$, J
Chelmsford Tshemz•ford J
chcrub tsher•əb W, tsheer•ob J
-chester -tsheshor J
chaveron tshev'arn J
chow tshiu $\mathbf{C}$, tshoo tshoou, may be tshiu, sometimes tsbaA J

## Chap. IX. § 2. PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF XVII CENT. 1005

chichen tshik•ən J
childien tshil•ren J chimncy tshim•ne P
chirp tsherp J
chirurycon $=$ sordgin sar $\cdot \mathrm{dzh}$ in M
chiscl chesel tshii'zel J
Chloe Cloe Kloo $i$ C
chocolate tshak•olæert J
choir chone kujir J
Cholmly Tshom $1 i \mathrm{~J}$
chorister kuer-ister J
Christ kroist W, Wk
christen kris'n J
Christian krist•Jen W, kristen sometimes J
Christmas kris'mæs J
church tshartsh Wk
chuse tshuuz M
-cial, -shæl J
-ciate -shææt J
cinque siqk J
-cious -shas J
circuit sər-kit C, sər-kiut sər•ket J
Cirencester Sis•etor J
citron sit•rn C, sit•ru M
civil siv:al J
clarion klereen occ. J
clear kliir P, M, J
clerk klærk J
clew klin J
clift klif J
climb klaim P
cloak cloke klook C
clyster glis tar J
coach kootsh C
coarse kuurs $=$ course C
cobiron kob•ai•ərn kob•ərn J
cochinel kush-ineel J
cockney kak'ne P
codicil kad isil C
coffee = caphé kofe M
cognisance kon•isæns, kon•isæns J
cohere koнеег• J
cohort kuurt J
coif kaif C, quorf kaif J
coil kuuil, koil sometimes J, quorl koil J
coin kain J
colander kal•ændər J
cold koold nomzunquam kould W , kould
P, kıuld C
collier $\mathrm{kal} \cdot \mathrm{sor}$ and in similar words, -ier $=$ Jәr C
Cologne Kul-en Cul-len E
colonel kal-nyl J
coltsfoot koolz fut J
comb kuum J
combat kəm•bæt C
come kam W, cos kəm C
comely comly kam•li C
comfort kom•fort J
comfrcy kom•fre P
commandment komæn•ment J
committee $=$ committé komit'e II
companion kəmpren'Jən C
company kəm'pæni J
complete $=$ compléte kompleet $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{J}$
comptroll kantroul. J
comrad camerade kjm•rææd J
concede konseed• J
conccit konseet• P, J
conccive konseev- P , concery kanseev-
C, konseer• é masculin M, J
concoursc kan ku urs C
condign kondig•on J
condition kandis ion negligentius W
conduit kan•dit P, E, kon•det C, kon•diut
kən $\cdot \operatorname{det} \mathrm{J}$

congc kyn•dzhe J
conjure k ən'dzhər J
conquer koq-ker? J
conscience kon'shens J
conspicuous kouspik'eas J
constable kan'stibl abusively J
construe kon-stor J
consume konshuum• J
contagion koutææ•dzhen occ. J
contradict kantredikt. C
controul kontroul- $\mathbf{P}$
contrary kontreere $\mathbf{C}$
convey konvei P , kanvee• C
copy kup• $i \mathrm{C}$
coppice kops J
coral kar:el C, J
corrupt korəp. often J
coroner kraun'ər J
costly kos li J
couch kuutsh P, J
cough kof $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{P},=k u ̂ f f$ kaaf M
could kould P, kuuld C, kuud J
couldest kuust J
coulter k wul'tar C
countrcy kan'tre $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{kan} \cdot \mathrm{tri} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
counterfeit kzun'torfeet J
couple $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{p} \cdot \mathrm{C}$
courage, kər`ædzh C, J, kur`ædzh J
courier kariir• J
course kuurs $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{C}$, koors ou $=$ o un pous
long M, kulurs J
cownt kurrt P, C, J
courtesan curtezan kartezan C, kar-tisæn J
courteous kart•Jas C, J, kuurt•Jus J
courtesy kortesi P, J
courtier kuur tior P, kuurt'sor C
courtship kuurt ship C
cousin $\mathrm{k} \partial z \cdot \mathrm{n} \mathrm{P}$, cousen coosen kaz'n
C, kəz•ən J
covent(garden) kov'en J
cow kou J
cowherd kəu'næerd occasionally J
coy kai C
cozen kaz'n C, koz'on J
cradle kreed 1 C
crazy kreez ${ }^{i} \mathrm{C}$
credit kree'dit J
Crete criit J
crevis kree $\cdot \mathrm{vis} \mathrm{J}$
crimson krim'sin E
erony chone krooni C
crosier =crojir kroozhor M, krooz.ər sometimes J
crouch kruutsh J
crucified kriu'sifijed Wk
cruise kriuz J
cube kiub C
cuckow kukuu• P
cupboard kob'rd J
Cupid kiu-bid sometimes J
cure kyyr W, kiu•or C
curious kiurios C
curtain karteen P
cushion kush•cn, kosh•en? cush-en $\mathbf{E}$

## D

daily dxilli Wk
dairy deeri C
dame dææm W
damosel dæm•sel C, dæm•zel J
damson damasin dæm•in J
dance daans J
dandle dæn'l J
dandriff dandhuFf dæn•dor facilitatis causa C
Daniel Dæn el oceasionally J
Daphne Dæf•ne J
dart dæært C
dash dæsh C
date deezt C
danghter dasftor occasionally J
daunt dannt, dæent melius fortasse C , $=$ daint dænt M, dænt daant J
Daventry Dæen'tri Deen'tri J
day dxi W, Wk, dee C
de- dee- J
dear diir W, P, C, M, J, der J
dearth derth C
debonair debaneer $\mathbf{C}$
deceit deseet nonnulli desxit W, deseet• P, J
deceive descer. W, P, deceiv diseev. C, deseev é masculin M, J
decoy dikəi abusively J
deign dxin P , deen J
Deitrel Dri'trel J
deity dee'ti dai $\mathrm{ti} \boldsymbol{J}$
demesue demeen dimiin J
deputy deb-iuti oceasionally J
despair despeer C
desume dashuum $J$
deter deter- detcer- detæser• ? e se prononce ai M
devil der-l C, div-l del sometimes del as in "del take you" J
diadem doi $æ$ dem C
diamond doi niond di-mund $\mathbf{E}$
diaphragm doi $x f$ frem J
diary decr-i oce. J
dietionary diks'næri E, diks'nori cus. tomary and fashionable J, henee the old joke of a servant being sent to borrow a Dik Snær $\boldsymbol{i}$ asking for Mis-ter Ritshexd Snær $\cdot i$
did dəd barbarè C
didst dist for speed's sake J
diphthong dipthong dip thoq J
dirge dar•dzhi C
distrain distrenn distreen. J
diserete diskreet. J
do duu rectiùs doo W , duu $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{d} 00=d o e \mathrm{C}$, duu M, J
dole dool P
dolt doult P, duult C
done don W
door duu $\cdot \mathrm{er}$ sometimes J
dost duust J
doth duuth J
double dab-l C
doublet dab-let C, J
dough dowe doo C
doughty doo'ti J
dove dəv W, dəf M, dəv J
dozen dosen dovzen dəz•n C, dəz'on J
drach $m$ dræm C, drek $\partial \mathrm{m}$, dræm J
draught dratat $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
droll droul C, drol a français M
drought $=$ draout drout M, drout draat droot J
dumb dam P
Dunelm Dən•em J
dunghill daq•il P
Dunstable Don'stibl abusively J
dure dyyr T
Durham Dər`æm J
dwindle dwinl J

## E

$e$ - ee- J
ean een C
car iir C, J
earl Eerl C
carly Eerl-i C
earn Eern C
earnest Eer-nest C
carth Erth, Jorth barbarè C , $=$ yorth
jerth pas du bel usage M
earwig iir*wig C
Eastcheap Ees'tshcep J
eastward cest-ord J
ebullition balish'on often J
Ecelesficld Eg.lzfiild J
eclogue eg. $\cdot \log \mathrm{J}$
ccstasy eg'stesi J

Chap. IX. § 2. PRONOUNCING Vocabulary of xvil cent. 1007

Edward Ed•ord J
e'er eer J
effectual efek'tæl oce. J
ei never $=\mathrm{ii} \mathrm{J}$
eight æit P , æit vulgariter C , pit (?) J
eilet $\mathrm{i}^{-}$let J
cither eedh•er P, EEdh•or C, adh•วr e
feminine M, əidh'ar eedh'or J
cke eek J
el- l- often J
Eleanor Ellenor El•nar J
eleven elev•วn ilær'วn J
em-m-often after' 'the' or a vowel, as mol-shon emulsion J
'em om them J
emb-b- often as bod•i embody J
embalm embælm $\cdot \mathrm{P}$
embolden embould'n P
emp. p- often as peetslı empcach J
ent-n. often as nəf enough J
-en -ən in eaten, \&c., J
enamel æm•el J
enamoured æm•ord J
end-d-as dæm*ædzh endamage J
end ind barbarè C
endeavour endee var P
England Iiq•lænd P, J, Iq•lænd J
English Iiq•lish P, J
engorge gordzh J
engrave grææゥ J
enhance enhaans J
cnough inəf sat multuin $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{P}$, enəu• sat multa W. enəf quantitatem deno-
tans, enəu• numerum denotans C
environ ensai•rn C
ewroll enruul C
ensue enshuu•J
ensure enshuur J
entrails en'trælz P
enthusiasm Euthiu'shæzm C , thiu* siæsəm J
Epiphany Pif $æ n i$ sometimes J
epistle pis 1 sometimes J
epitome epit'ome M
-er -ar C
ere eer C
err or C
es-s- often J
eseape seææp J
eschew estshiu• P, estshoo estshoou' may
be estshiu• J
esquire skwair J
-ess, -is, often in words of two syllables as gudnis goodness J
essay see J
estates stææts J
eternal iter•naAl P
Eton Eaton Eet•n J
etymology timol $\cdot 0 \mathrm{dzh} i \mathbf{J}$
ev-v-often as væn•dzhelist evangelist J Evan Iiv'æn Ev*on J
cevery ev'ari J
Eve liv J
eve iiv M
Eveling Iiv•liq J
even ii ven $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$
evening iiv•niq $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$
evil iiv•l C, M, J
ewe eu $\mathbf{P}$
example ensæm'pl sæm•pl J
exasperate æs'perææt J
Exchequer Eschequen tskek •or J
expericnee ekspeer ens sometimes J extol ekstool- P
extraordinary eks*tra,ordinæri P
extreme $=$ extréme ekstreem $\cdot \mathrm{M}$

- $e y$-e J
eyelet oilet $\partial \mathrm{i} \cdot$ let sometimes J


## F

fable $\mathrm{fEE} \cdot \mathrm{bl} \mathbf{C}$, = faible fææ•b'l M
fair feer C, =faive feer feer see 'fare'
M by his rule, fæor feear feer J
falchion faA shon J
fateon faAk’n J
falconer fask'nor C
fall fasl C
fallow fæl•u P, fæl-AA commonly J
Falmouth FAA moth J
falter faA tar J
fare = faire fæær M
farvier fær•әr occasionally J
farthing fær•diq C
fashion fæsh•n o comme muet M, fæshen J
fasten fæs'n J
father fææ'dher Wk, faA dhor J
favour fææ•vuur fææ•vər J
fealty feel $\mathrm{t} i \mathbf{C}$
fear fiir C
February Febrari sometimes J
feign fæin P , feen J
felt felt e en ai M
filo fee lo J
female fee mææl J
feodary fed ori C
feoff fef C, fef J
feoffee fef-ii P, J
ferule fee riul J
fend feud P
few feu reetius, quidam fiu W , feu P , faa barbarè C
field fiild $\mathbf{C}$
fieldfare feld•feer C, fiil•fæær J
fiend fiind W, find $J$
fight $\mathrm{f} c \mathrm{t}=$ fit C
figure fig•or C
finger fiq.gar J
fir for C, fEr à peu près comme e ouvert M
first forst $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{C}$
fire foi or C , foicr re comme er M, fai or J
fissure fish.or J
fivepence fipens J
tlake tleeok C
flash tlash C
Alasket Hleesk•et C
flaunt flasut P , C, flont flaant J
thaw = fla thas M
flea tlii W
floorl FLoud flod P, flud flod C, flod J
floor flullor sometimes J
flourish tlor $\cdot$ ish C
foal foale fool C
foil foil sometimes J
foist foist somet imes $\mathbf{J}$
fold fould P , fuuld C
folk fook J
follow fol-uu $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$, fas $\cdot \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{AA}}$ fol- $\cdot \mathrm{Aa}$ com. J
folly fal $\cdot i \mathrm{C}$
fondle fonl J
fondling fon 1 lq J
fool fuul C
foot fuut P , fut as distinct from fot, fot barbarè C, fot, better fut J
force furrs C
forl Foous fuurd P, J
foreigh forrann far en C, for'on efeminin M
forfeit $=$ far fet C , for fot e feminin M , for feet J
form fuurm classis C, fürm farm forme, $=$ fôrm foorm banc M
forsooth forsoth', better farsuuth • J
forswear farswecr C, forseer• J
forswore forsuur. J
forth roortii fuurth C
foruard for'ord J
four fuur C
fought foot J
fousth fourth P , furth $=$ forth $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
fracture $=$ fracter frek'tor avec e feminin, familier M
frail fræil C
frankincense fræqk•onsens barbarè C
fraud frood may be frasd J
fraudulent frau diulent, fraadeulent negligenter C
frequent free $\mathrm{kwent} J$
friend friind $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{P}$, frend C , friind frind frend J
friendly fren $1 i \mathrm{~J}$
friendship fren ship J
froise froiz sometimes J
frontiers frontiirz P
frost frast, fere semper produeitur o ante st C
froward frou ærd P, froo.ord J
fruit friut P, friut C
frumenty formiti barbarè C , $=$ formité formiti M, formeti J
Full:s Foouks J
full ful C, ful M, J
funcral fun'erel C
fur for $=$ fir C
furniture formitor $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
furrier furier far'or sometimes J
further forder C
fusilier fiusileer fiusiliir J
fustian fost iæn P , fest en sometimes J
future fiutor J

## G

gain grin P
Gabricl Geb rel sometimes J
gallery gel $\cdot \mathbf{r} i \mathrm{~J}$
gallimalfry galimua fri $J$
gallon gæen in Berks J
gallous grel $\cdot \mathrm{s} \mathrm{E}$
gaol dzhæel dzheel J
gash grsh C
gasp geexp C
gastly gas $1 i \mathrm{~J}$
gate geeat C
gave gev gan barbarè C
gazette Gazet gæzet- C
gear giir C, M. J
goneral, dzhen'eral approche du son de notre a M
gentle dJen't'l W
geography dzheg'ræfi sometimes J
geometry dzhem etri J
Gcorgius Dzhor dzhuus J
gesture dzhest'or = jester C
get gret W, git facilitatis causa C
$g h=\mathrm{H}^{6}$ in bought, etc. P , desucvit
pronunciatio, retinetur tamen in scripturấ, C
ghost goost C
ghostly goos li J
girl gerl à pou près comme e ouvert M , gerl J
glance glaans P
glanders glaan $\operatorname{dorz} \mathrm{J}$
glebe gleeb J
glisten glis'n J
glori glaari Wk
Gloucester Glost or J
glove glaf M
gn-n- J
go guu rectiùs groo W, guu P , goo C
gold goold nonnunquam gould W , gould
P, guuld C, guuld J
Goldsmith Guul'smith J
good gəd, P, gud C, gəd, better gud J
good-ly-mess gud-li-nes C
gougc guudzh J
gourd goord P, guurd J
gournet garnet C
grace grees $\mathrm{C},=$ graice grees M
gracious grations gree'shos C
grammar, grem'ar approche du son de notre a M
grandehild gren'tshoild J
granddame gren $æ m \mathrm{~J}$
grandfather gren•fedh•er J
grandmother græn'modh•er J
grange greendzh C
grant grement C
grasshopper gres"ppor J
grating greet iq C
gravy greev $i \mathrm{C}$
gravity greveiti C
great greet C
Greenwich Grin idzh J
grenadier GRaNadier grænædecr'grenædiir" J
grey gree P
gridiron grid•i'ərn C, grid•əi $\cdot$ rn grid•orn J
grindstone grain•ston J
griest griest grist J
groat groot P, grast C, M, J
groin groin sometimes J
gross groos J
guaiacum gwee-kom J
guardian gærd'en occasionally J
gudgeon govgeon gadzh'on C
guess ghess ges J
guild gild C
guildhall gild•haal C, gail•hasl J
guilt guilt J
gargeons gurgians gredzh'inz facilitatis causa C

## H

ha! нæя C
haok hæek J
Hackiney Hzk'ne P
hadst næst for speed's sake J
hair heer C
half hati C, J
halfnemy hææ•peni J
hallow нæl•и P
halm ндам C, J
hamper hanaper hæm'per J
handkerchicf hankerchief hæqketshor facilitatis causa C , $=$ hen . ketcher нeq ketshər M, нænd•kərtshor J
handle нæn•l J
handmaid нæn•meed J
handsel нæn'sel J
handsome нæn'səm J
hardly нærli J

harsh нæsh J
Harwich Hær•这zh J
hasten нæs'n J
hat, нæt en ai bref ou en e ouvert M
haunt Hasnt, Hænt melius fortasse C Hent hasnt J
hautboys нoo boiz J
haut-goût havt goust hoo goo J
haven heev'u C
hay hee C
hazelmut haslenut heerzlnat C
hazy heez-i C
he нii P, C, М, J
head hed C
hear нiir W, P, C, M, J
heard нærd P, С, J, нerd J
hearken нerk'ı a est conté pour rien M
heart нæет C, J
hearten Hært'n C
hearth нærth C
Hebrew Hee briu J
hecatomb нek'ætəm J
Hector Ek•tor J
hedge edzh J
heifer неef er P , нef'ər C , нәf'әr e feminin M, нeef'or нef'ər J
heigh наі J
height heit, heet negligenter C , =haït
hait M, hoit meet, heighty heetth J
heinous hainous heinas, hee'ros negligenter C, неe'nəs J
heir æir P , eer C
held mild barbarè C
Helen El $\cdot$ eli J
hemorrhoids em•erodz J
hence $=$ hirnce нins M
her нәг $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{C}$, нәг e feminin M , =әг after consonants J
lierald herauld her'aal J
herb jərb barbarè C , = yerb jerb pas du bel usage M, erb, Jerb as sounded by some J
Herbert Hær-bart J
here нiir P , нii•er re comme or M, нiir J
heriot er"iat J
hermit er"mit J
heron нәrn J
hiccough нik•эp J
hideous нid•ios нid•eas J
him im, often, as take 'im J
hire нәі ег J
his iz, often, as stop ' is horse J
hither = heder нәdh•er efeminin M
hoarse Hoors C
hogshead нәg'shed J
hoise нәiz sometimes J
Holbown Hoo born $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{H}_{o o}$ barn J
hold нould P, nuuld C
holdfast Hool-fæest J
holiday = hâliday нol-idee M
hollow has las hol'as commonly J
holm Hoom J
holp ноор J
holpen hoop.n J
holster HoLDSTER Hool'ster often ool'stor J

homage amredzh often J
hood нәd I', нod, nәd, better нud J
hord nuurd P
horn haarn, fire semper producitur o ante $m \mathrm{C}$
hosammel ouzen'x often J
husier = hijer noo zhor M, ноo shor J
host oost P, oust often J
hostage ast'edzh J
hintter whot or barbares C
hour, hourly our, curli, the only words with he mule M
houschold notshowd nous oould J
houscuife $=$ hozz-if нәз if M, нәд'ii noz'inos $i \mathrm{~J}$.
hover нәюәг C
how heu molliores eoneimittatem nimis affectantes C
housoever нouzervr facilitatis causa C
huge nindzh C, woondzh abusively J
hundred нәn•dord facilitatis causa C, M, J
hurvicane heraucane her-askæn? P
hyacinth dzhæs inth J

## I

$I=a \ddot{\text { ai }}$ M
idle ai •d'l W
immersion mer"shon J
imp-p-often, as pound impound J
impede impeed J
impost im'poost C
imposthume impost•ium $\mathbf{P}$
impugn impəg•ən J
incision insizhen C
inchipin inshevin J
Indian In'dzhæn, sometimes In•den J
indict indoit cn somant l'i ä̈ M , J
inhabit inæb- it wsually J
inhibit inib• it usually J
inherit iner it usually J
inhesion in Hii zhon C
inhospituble inss'pitæbl usually J
injoin indzhain• C
injury in dzheri J
instead instiid• J
interfere entarfeir enterfeer $P$
interupt interop often J
int- v-often as vest intest J
inteigh invxi P
inveigle ınverg ${ }^{-1} \mathrm{C}$, invee g'l émasculin M, J
inverd in ord J
iron ai orn C, M, J, ərn J
Isabel Ju•bel J
isle ail J
is not? ent? facilitatis eausa C
issue ish 111 J
isthmas ist•mos J
Italian Itiel en oceasionally J
it has tæz J
it is tiz J
-ity -cti J

## J

Jacquet dzhæek $\cdot \mathrm{et}$
jambs dzhatmz J
James Dzheemz C
Jane $=$ Dgéne Dzheen M
Junuary Dzhæn'ori sometimes J
jar dsar W
jasmine dzhes min J
joundice sacndies dzhaandes C, dzhanadis J
jaunt dzhasnt, dzhæent melius fortasse
C, dzhænt dahasant J
jealous sii los Jee-las? je-lus E
jcalousie dzhee-losi $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}$
Jenkin Dzhiq-kin J
Jeaffrey Dzhefre J
jeopardy dzheprerde P, C
jerk Jerk as sounded by some J
Jesus Dzhee'sas J
Jew Dhiu J
jeuel dzhiu el P
join dzhuin dzhoin C, dzhuuin, sometimes dzhoin J
joint dzhaint C
jointure dzhnin'tor dzhain'tor C
jolt dzhuult C
journal dzhar næl C
journey dzhorne P, dzhor-ni C
joy dsoi W, dzhai C
joy dzhai C
judge dzhədzh Wk
juice dzhius C, dzhius J
Julian Dzhil•ian, a woman's name J
Jupiter Dzbiu bitor sometimes J

## K

Kelmsey Kem'zi J
Kenelm Kenem J
Kerchief kar'tshar J
key kee P, J
kidney kidne P
kiln kil J
kindle kin 1 J
kindly kjin•li J
Kingdom kiq-dom TVk
$k n-=h n$, nh (!) C, n-, but may be sounder kn J
knave nheeser C
kinead nheed C
Fince uhii C
knew knyy W , nhin C
knoll nheul C
know knill, alii knoo W, nhoo C
known nooun J

## L

ladlc lee:dl C
ludy leedi C
lamprey lempre P
lame laxem W

## Chap. IX. § 2. pronouncing vocabulary of xvil cent.

lance laans P, J
lanch lexensh C
landlord lan lord $\mathbf{J}$
landscape LaNdskip lænskip J
lane leean C
language leq gredzh occasionally J
lass læs $\mathbf{C}$
last lexest C
lastly læs li
laudable $\mathrm{lau} \cdot \mathrm{d} æ b l, \mathrm{laA}^{2} \cdot d æ b l$ negligenter C
laugh læf W, I, M, læf las J
laughter last or J
laundress laanris J
laurel laurel, las rel negligenter C
Laurence Lær"æns Lar-rance $\mathbf{E}$
law = lâ las M
lead leed Wk, P
leap lep a est conté pour rien M
leaper lep or $=$ leper C
learn leern C
lease lees C
lecture lek'tor C, J
Ledbury Led-beri J
Leicester Les'ter J
Leigh Lai J
leisure lee'ziur, $\mathrm{P}=$ léjécur é masculìn
lee'zhər M, lee'shər J
Leominster Lem'ster J
Leonard Len'erd J
leopard leprerd P, lep•rd C J
Leopold Lii'opol Lep oold J
let læt barbarè C
lever leaver lev'jr C, leaver lev'ar a est conté pour rien M
leveret leaveret lev'ret C
lewd lend P
liberty lib•rti P
licc liis barbarè C
licorice liqutrice lik•iris J
lieu lyy W, liu P, liu C
licutenant $=$ lifténant liftenæent M, J
Lincoln Linkon J
linent $=$ linnin lin $\cdot$ in M
linger liq-gar J
liquid lik id J
liquor lik• $\cdot \mathrm{J}$
listen lis'n J
listless lis.les J
Liverpool Ler-punl E, Leverpool
Leer pual Leir puul J
loin lain $=$ line $\mathbf{C}$, lain sometimes $\mathbf{J}$
ludging lods•iq W
loll lol a français M
London Lon'dan negligentiùs W, J
longer loq ger reetiüs loq-er W
look lok, better luk J
lose lnaz M
loss las C
lost lasst C
loth Loath $=7$ âth $l_{\text {AAth }} \mathrm{M}$
lough laf! J
love lov TV, laf M, lov J
loyal bi $æ \mathrm{l}$ abusively J
luncheon Lunchion lan'tshen J
lure linor C
lute lyyt W , liut P

## II

maggot $=$ maiguct meg.ət M
Maidenhead Meed•ned Meed•нed J
main meen C
maintain menteen $\cdot \mathrm{C}$
major meedzh or C
malign mælig• $\cdot \mathbf{J}$
malkin mas kin penieutus C, Malkin, as a name, MaA $\cdot$ kin P, J
mall mail C , = mell mel, jer de panme M
Malmsey Manm-ziJ
maltsterer mall-sterer J
mane meeon C
manger meen $\cdot d z h \neq \mathrm{C}$
mangy meen dzhi C
mann man Gcrmun C
Mantua Mren'tiu J
manuscript mæn iskript, mæn'iuskrip often J
many men $i$ C, man'e sometimes J
margin mær dzhent J
marriage mær 'edzh C, mær•edzh J
marsh mash J
mask mreesk C
mason mees'n C
masquerade messkirææed J
mastiff mæst-ii J
maugre mooggr, may be maA ${ }^{\text {gar }} \mathrm{J}$
maund mand J
maunder mæn•dor mann•dor J
may-not meent J
Mayor maior meer C, J
$-m b-m$ in monosyllables J
me mii P, mee C, M, J
mean miön C
meat meet W
measure mez iur P , mesh•ə J
Medes Meedz J
medicinc med•sin P, M, med•sen C
meet mit C
merchant mær'tshænt E, J
mercy mær: $i \mathrm{~J}$
mere mear miir J
mesne mess meen J
metal met•l C
mete meet $=$ meat $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
metre mii•tor J
Nichaelmas Miil-mæs? Miel-mas E
mice miis barbarè C
minnow menow mee no J
-minster -mister J
mire mai'er J
misapprehend misseprend• J
miscellane miscelan mes•lin mæslæn J
miracle mærrekl facilitatis causa C
might mat med barbare C
mn- 11- J
-mn -m J
moiety moilti J
moil muil moil C, moil sometimes J
moisten mois'n J
molten moolt'n P
Monday Muun dee J
moncy mone $\mathbf{P}$, mon i J
mongcora mon-karn J
monkey maq ki l'
monsieur monsiur monsiir• J
More Murr J
morrow mar $\mathbf{u} \mathrm{P}$
mosquito maskii'to J
most moost C, most o court M
mostly moos li J
mother madh'or J
mouch muntsh J
mould muld C
moulter muml'tor C
mourn muurn W, C, J, morn J
-mouth -math J
move muuv rectius moov W , məv $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$, muuv C, M, J
-mps -ms J
-mpt -mt J
Mulgrave Muu'græev J
murrion mor en sometimes $J$
muscle maz-l J
musc myyz TV, miuz P
musquet mas ket J
mustard, most'ard approche du sone de notre a M
mute myst W
myrrh Mirri mor C

## N

naked neek•ed C
name neeon C
napkin neb•kin sometimes J
nation пææ•sion P
nature nee'tor $\mathrm{C},=$ naitcr nææ•tor
familier avec e feminin M , nææ'tor J
naught nasft occasionally J
nauseate nauseat naa'shot $\mathbf{C}$
navy neev $i C$
-nch -nsh J
$-n d-\mathrm{n}$ - when a consonant is added to such as end in 'nd J
ncap nepe neep J
ncar niir W, P, C, M, J
noed niid C
negro nee.gro J
acigh neei ${ }^{1}$
neighbour nei bor nee bor P
neither needh•or nodk-er barbarè C, nodh or $e$ fominin M , noi dher needh or J
nephew nee•fiu, ner•iu J
nither needb-er J
ncuter neu'ter rcctius, quidam niu'ter W , neu'ter I'
new nyy, neu rectiùs, quidam niu W, niu I , nin J
none noon W
nor nar C
North Noor J
Norvich Nor:idzh J
nostril nos'trel J
notable nat $x b l$ C
notary noo tori C
nought noot P , noft sometimes J
nourish nər ish C
nove nou J
-nts -ns J
nunchion non'shen J

## 0

oaf AUF AWF oof may be AAF J
oatmeal at'miil ou court M
oats oots, wəts barbarè C
obey obrei P, oobee ${ }^{\text {C }}$
obeysance obeei'swns P
oblige obliidzh• J
obscene obseen J J
ocean oo shæen C, J
of Af W
ogre AUGRE $00 \cdot \mathrm{~g} \partial \mathrm{r}$ may be AA.gər J
oil ail W , jil $=I$ 'll, isle C
ointment jint ment C
Olave ol l iv J
old oold, non*นnquan ould W , ould P , oould J
-om -әm C
-on -әn C
once wrens, wrenst as in Shropshire and some parts of Wales J
ane oon W, C, wæn J
onion on $\cdot \mathrm{J} \partial \mathrm{n}$, and in similar words,
-ion = Jən C, ən• Jən, sometimes ən $\cdot \mathrm{n} \mathbf{J}$
only =onnly oon $\cdot \mathrm{li} \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{J}$
opinion opin•on, pin•Jou by the valgar J
-or -әr C
ordinance or-næns J
ordinary or-nəri J
ordure an'dor =order C
osier $=$ ôjer 00 zhor M
ostrich estrich es'tridzh J
ostler hostler as'lor often J
ought oot P, ast C, =at Aat M
-our =-uur, -er, -or J
-ous -uus -us -es -as J
out out C
over oor J
owe (00) C
oul aul W
Owen Oo:æn J
pageant padzh $\operatorname{in} \mathrm{J}$
pain peen C
pale pxed W
pall-mall pel-mel J
palm paam J
Palmer PaA mor J
panch pasintsh J
papal pææ-pæl C
paper peepror C
parade pereed• J
parliament pær•læment C, E, sometimes per-lement J
parsley pers•li P
pasquil pres-kil J
pass pæs C
past preest C
pasture pass tor $=$ pastor C
pate peeat C
path preeth C
Paul's church $=$ Fôls Poolz M, Poolztshartsh Polis-church E, Pooulz, Poolz, may be Paslz J
parnch pawnen pantsh C
pса pii W
pear = pair perer une poire M
pearl peerl C
pedant pee dent J
penal pee nel J
penny = pery pen: $\boldsymbol{\mathrm { M }}$
penmyzor th pen-arth pen-urth E, panwarth, pen•rth J
pension = penachonn pen $\cdot$ shan M
people piip-l I, C, pep-l piip•l J
perceive perseev é masculin M
perfect pier-fet sometimes pær-fekt J
periwig pær"wig J e en ai M, per*wig periig. J
pcrjuc'y par-dzhori J
perpetual parpet'æl sometimes J
Peter Pii tor J
Pheraoh Fææ•ræoo P, Feer•oo J
phlegm =flème flem $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{C}$, flem, may be fleg.an J
рһœпіх fee•niks J
phenetic phrentic fræn'tik J
phethisiek tis ik J
piazzas piææ•tshez J
picture $\mathrm{p} i \mathrm{k} \cdot \mathrm{tar}=$ pickt her $\mathrm{C},=$ picter avee e feminin fomilier M
Fiedmont Pii -mont J
pillow pil'u P
pipkin pib-kin occasionally J
piquant pik'xent J
pique piik J
piquet piket• J
pitcous pit ${ }^{\text {pos }} \mathrm{M}$
poem roeme poeem• J
point print paint C
poise paiz sometimes J
poison puiz'n paiz'n C, poiz'n sometimes $\mathbf{J}$
poll pool nomиunquam paul W, paul C
poltroon paltruun paltruua' J
poniard pon•Jərd J
Pontius Pansias Wk, Pou shuus J
pontoon pontuun. J
pour pour = power C
poulterer puul-tror C
poultice pultess pooul'tis J
poultry prul-tri C
pleasure pleerzyr W, pleziur P , plezh•ar C, plesh•or J
poor purer sometimes J
porcellane prrselen J
portreve poortree poort-rii J
possible pas"ebl facilitatis cousa C
postscript pooskip often J
pot prot nomитиquam W
pother podh•or J
pottage parredzh, some urite porvidge J
potsherd potsheard pat-sheerd C
plain pleen C
plaited plest ed P
plane pleezn C
plausible plauzebl, plazzibl negligenter C
pleurisy pleurrisi P
plevin pleer-in J
plough plow plou C, ploo J
praise preiz W, preiz preez negligenter C
prance prasns J
prayer preer C
pre- pree- J
prebendary prebend J
precise prisaiz C
prefer prifar" C
pressure presh•or J
proy preei P
priest prist (?) J
Priscian Prish 'ien J
prophesy prov'esai J
prove prav P, pruuv C, M
provision proovizh $\quad$ ou C
prowl proll prooul J
$p s$ - s- J
psalm saam C, J
psalm samin J
$p t-\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{J}$
Pugh Piu J
puill pul C, pul N, J
pulley pul'e P
punctual paqk-tel sometimes J
pursue parshuw J
pursuit parshuut• J
puss pus M

## Q

quality kwel-iti C
qualm kwam C, kwanm en a long M, J
quart kwast on a long M
question kwest ion 1'
quodlibet kod libet J
quoif koif J
quoit kjit J
queta koo tie J
quate koot C, J
quoth kooth J
quolidian kotidicu J

## R

Rachel Reat + shel W
ruddish red ish fueilitatis causa (:
raisins recz'us 1 ', rez'us $=$ reasons $\mathrm{C},=$ rezins reczinz M, reezons J
Ralph Ramef Rafc E, Raaf J
ravily reseriti C
$r$ - ree- J
$-r e=-e r$ әr
read riid ${ }^{\prime}$
read reed lego W , riid $\operatorname{lego} \mathrm{C}$
Reading Reed iq J
reason recz-n o se mange M, J, E, the
last uriles' 'reas' $x$ '
receive rescer• W , P , re-eev• C , resecy-
é maseulin M, recscer. J
reccipt reseet P , reeseet J
refkiless reachles rek-les? C
recipe res ipe J
veruit rikriut C
red rod e femmin M
refuse rifiuz verb $\mathbf{P}$
regard $=$ regaird regred M
rehearse rineers• C
reign reen J
reingage reeingeedzh• M
reins reenz J
relinquish riliq-kish J
remore rinar P
reneounter reenkzun'tar J
rondezvous rea-dirunz ran-dy-rooz E, ran $\cdot$ deriuu J
rerew riiniu J
roprint reeprint M
sere reer J
reverard riir-werd P
resurrection resarck sian TVk
restauration restorave shon J
retch reach retsh J
reward reward a comme en français II
-heam rium C
riband riben J
Richmond Ritsh'mon J
right rait Wk
righteous roi-tios roitcos J
rinct rain $J$
risque rizg J
roast nost roost C
roustment roos'mect J
roll roal nonneuquam roul W , ruul C
Rome Ruum P', Ruum = room, different from roam C, M, J
rough raf, W, C, M
royal rai:on abusirely J
rupture raptor C

## S

sabbuth sob-oth abusively J
suffiron sexporn C, E, MI
saill sed fucilitatis causa C, sed seed J
saints sacints Wk
salad sal-ct J
Salisbury Samisbury Salz•beri J
salt sailt P, C
salleellar saltseller, saal-scler J
saltpetre sail piiter J
salmon saim ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ C, siem-on J
salve sieey l', saar C, J
same sterm W
sanders saan-dorz J
Sariour seæ'viour P
saw saa C
says saies sez facilitatis eausa C
scaffold skief ol J
sceptic sceptick skep-tik J
scene $=$ seéne scen M, J
schedule sked•iul I', J, sed•ol sed-dial E, sed inu J
scheme skeem J
sehism siz'm C, J
scholar skol-ərd abusively J
scold skoold, nonmunquam skould W, skould P, skrould C
scoundrel skan drel C
scourge skərdzh P, C, skwordzh facil. eausa C, skərlzh on =o court JI, J
scourse skuurs permuto C
seream skreem C
scrivener skrivenor P
scroll skruuld C
scrupulous skreu pelos fatilitatis causa C
scummer skim'or barborè C, =skimer, skim.or M
se-see- J
sea sii W, see C
seal seel W
search seertsh C
sear siir C
searee seers C
season seez:n C, seez'u J
seat sect ${ }^{W}$
seen $\sin \mathrm{J}$
seise seez C, J
seive scer J
seize scez, nommulli sxiz W, secz $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{M}$
seraglio scracel ioo J
serene $=$ sejéne screen $\cdot \mathrm{M}$
serge searge satdzh P
sergeant sardzhe)rent $P$
Sergius Scrodzhuus J
serous see ras J
servant servent e en ai M
service serrvis barbarè C
severnight =senit sen it M, seuroit J
shadow shed 'u P'
shall sbal Wk, sbaAl, signum modi C , shal M

Chap. IX. § 2. pronouncing vocabulary of xyil cent. 1015
shalm sham C, J
shambles shaam $\cdot \mathrm{blz} \mathrm{J}$
she shii I', C, M, J
shear sheer C
shears shiirz C, M
shepherd shep ard J
shew shuu, sheu C, shoou shoo, may be shiu J
shive shiir C, J
shirt shart C, shart P, approche du son de notre a M
shoe shum P , shoo shuu $\mathrm{C}=$ ehoû shum II
should should P, shuuld C, shuud J
shoulder should $\cdot$.or C
shouldest shnust J
shovel shaul J
shove shav J
shew shren C, shroo shroou, may be shriu J
shrewed shrood shrooud may be shrind J
Sheresbury shrooz-beri, Shroonz-beri, may be Shriuz beri J
sigh saith, un son qui approche fort du the en anglais MI, soi soith J
simile sim•ile J
sincere sinseer. $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$
-sion -shan J
sir sar l , C , ser à peu près comme e ourert II
sirrah sicrec C, sor:a approehe du son de notre a II
sirrup sor•op C
skeleton sceleton skeletan J
slink solnk skiqk J
slant slaant J
slouch sluutsh J
-sm -səm J
snow snon, alii snoo W
snew sncu reetius, quidam snin, W
so soo C
soft saaft J
Soho Soo joo often J
soil soil sometimes J
sojoum sodzhərn• J
sold sould, alii soold W, sould C
solder soo dor J
solllier soul dJər P, soo*dzher l muet M, souldier s 00 -dzher J
Solms Soomz J
Solomor SaA $\mathrm{l}_{\text {a }}$ mon J
some sam W
Somerset Sam•rset J
somexhut sam'xt J
son san W' W'k
soot silut l', sut C, sat, Zetter sut J
sorrow sar'u I'
soul soul, alii sool W, sool P, suul C, sooul J
source sumrs W, C, M
souse suus J
Southwark Sath work J
sovereign soveraign savreen J
Spaniarl Sprererd sometimes J
spaniel sprn el C, J
spear spiir C, M
sphere = sphére sfeer M, J
spindle spinl J
spoil spril sometimes J
stall stank C
stamp stamp barbarè C, stomp abusively J
stanch staintsh J
stead sted a est eonté pour rien M, stiid J
steal stecl W
steam stiim J
Stephen Stee'v'n J
stir stor C, ster à peu près comme e ouvert

## M

-stle -s'l J
Stoekholm Stok•Hoom J
stomach stam•ek J
stood stad P, stud C, stad better stud J
stoop stour stuup C
strange streendzli C
stranger stren djar a non tam requiritur
quam cgrè evitatur W , streen'dzhar C
strut stroont abusively J
subtil sat $\cdot i \mathrm{P}$, = sottle sat'’l M, sat'əl J
subtility sat ilti P
suceour sak'oor P
sue shuu J
suet SEWET siu'et C, shuu'et J
suer sheur $=$ sure, or perhaps seur, as
sheur is only "facilitatis eausa" C
sugar shag-ar (?) facilitatis eausa C, shuug. 2 J
suit siut P , sute siut C , shuut J
suitable siat xbl C
suitor suter sinter C
supreme siupreem. J
sure shiur facrilitatis causa $\mathrm{C},=$ chûre shiur M, shuur J
surfeit sor-fet C, sorfat e feminin M
survey sarvei- P
suture sinter ${ }^{C}$
suallow swel-u P
sucear sweer, sce forswear farsweer. C seer J
sweat sweet C, set J
Suedes Sweedz J
swollen sooln J
sword sward P, suurd C
stoom suurn C, soorn J
syncope siq kope J
syntagm sin $\cdot$ tem J
system systeme sisteem• J
T
table teeb. 1 C
tail teel C
Talbot 'TaA bot J
tale teeal C
talk tank rectius tielk W
Tangier 'Tandzhec.* Tandzhiin J
taper teepor C
tar tar C
tare $=$ taire tiver M
tares teentz C
tart tiewert $C$
tarme taant P, C, J, teent J
tassels taAscle en " long M
tea Thea tee J
teal teel W
tear teer lacero, tiir lacryma C
team tim J
teiree teers J
temptation tempters ian Wk
$t e n=t i m n$ tin MI
tenet tee'net J
tenure ten or $=$ tcnor C
terrene tereen J
terrible tri": bl facilitatis causa C
Thames Teniz J
that dhat en a conert M[
third thard Wk
thither $=$ deder dhadh $\cdot$ or e feminin $\mathbf{M}$
the dhe C , dhe J
Thebes Theebz J
their dheer J
Theobald Thee*obrld $P$
there dheer J
these dheez W, J
they dhwi P
Thomasin Tom'zin J
thoreght throut I
thousand thumz'n C
threepence $=$ thri-pims thrip ins familier.
M, threpeas J
thresh thrush barbare C
through throo J
thwart thort J
thyme $=$ toim M, J
ti- ante rocalem sh C
tierse ters C
tinder ton dor barbare C
-tion -shon J
tissue tishou J
to tuu M
tobacco TABACO abusircly sounded sometimes with an 'o,' tobrek'o tobrek'o J
toil toil W, toil toil C
told tould P, toould J
tall tool, sommurinam toul WV
tomb tuum C, M, J
took tok, better tuk J
torture tor-tar tor-ter C
toruch tuutsh totsh J
torgh tof WV , too J
toward tou'ierd 1'
touel toul J
toys taiz W
traflique traffig J
transient $=$ traîngient tren zhient J , tren zhent C, trien sheut J
travail traveel P
traveling traveliq $J$
treasure tresh or J
treble treeb 1 J
trigle troi $\mathrm{f}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}$ W
triphthong TRIPTLIONG trij) thaq J
troll Trow trooul J
trouble trabll C, J
trough trof W , troo $0 u=0$ us peu long II, J
trowel triucl barbaré C
trac triu C
trunchion tran'shiin J
trandle tron I J
turquoise torkecz? J
tưang treq J
Tuevd Twede Twiid J
two tuu C
tucopence $=$ topins tap ins familier $M$, tapreus J
tume tyyn W
Tyre toi-ar C

## U

u, la prononciation commune de l'u voyelle en Anglois est la méme qu'cur fiançais (suprà p. 182) in M
ugly OUGLY ag'li ${ }^{\prime}$
-um -um, may be -am J
wncouth ankuuth C , ankath• J
up op C
uphoold opoould J
upho'ster yooul-ster pooul-sterer J
up to Ap tu barbare C
-ure-or C, -er or, may be sounded-iur J
$u s=e \tau s$ os $\mathbf{~ I}$
use =yuse jiuz pas du bel usage M
uselésis siuz'les barbarè $\mathbf{C}$
usual iuzheurl C , = ̂̂jual iuzh•iurel It
usury seuz'əre barbarè C

## V

valley val $\cdot \mathrm{i} \mathrm{P}$
vanquish vaq.kish J
rapour veepoor C
eary veeri C
vault valt rast a lcap J
vaunt vallut C, J
rcil reel J
vcin veein $P$, veen eicomme en frangais M, veen J
vengeance ven dazhcpans $P$
zenison ven'zon $P$, ven'zu M, ven'zon J
renue VENEW ree'niu J
verdict var dikt verdait J
v.crjuice vardzhis $P$, vardahis $C$, vardzhes $E, J$
vial rai•AAl]'
victuals vit.lz facilitatis causa $\mathrm{C},=$ vittles vit'lz II, vitolz vitoolz J
view yyy W, viu C
villain, vil:an ai comme en dillain M , an exception to his rule
villany vil.ni J
eirgin varodzhin J
virtue var"tyy, a 2002 tam requiritur
quain cegrè evitatur, W
siseount vai kount J
nision vizion P
royage vi':edzh vye-age E
volatile valretil J
rouch vultsh J
rouchsafe vintsicef J
royage vairadzh abusively J
vulgar vul'gər J

## W

wafer weefor C
waif werr weef J
wainseot ween'zkat $P$
waistband wastband wæs brend J
evaistooat wastcoat weest koot C
walk wask, rectius wielk W, Watk C, J
uallow wæl'oo P
$W^{\prime}$ alter WAA $\operatorname{tar} J$
wane ween C
war Want C
warden wasd? C
warm waarm C
warren wasl"n C
uras waz C, waz en a court MI
wash wash en a court MI
uasteful wastful weest ful C
uatch Wastsh watsh C, Watsh en a court II
water waA'tor C, onûter was'tor M, was'tar J
wuttle watle wat•l C, wat•l en a sourt MI
we wii P, M, C, J
weal weel C
uean ween C
wear wet C
weary wer- $i \mathrm{P}$, wii•ri, wər•e barbarè C Frednestay Wenz dxi P, wenz dee MI, J weight wæit P , weet ei comme en francais M
were weer = wear C , weer $J$
Testminster Wes inastor J
$w_{h}=h o u$ wh MI
what what in a court M, wat, better whet J
when = hoinn whin M, weu, better when J whenee $=$ hoinnce whins II
where wheer J
wherry whink whore $e$ C
whether whodh $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ barbare C , wheedh $\cdot$ r J
whey whei P
whit nwit $=\mathrm{F}$. huit TV
uiclow wid'u $\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$
will wil, wal barbare C
who whu Wk, whuu P, Huu C, J
whole ноol W, J
whom whom P , inuum $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{J}$
whoop ниuр иup J J
whore нuй P, C, J
whortle нurt'l J
whose huuz J
Winchcomb Winsh kon J
wind waind rentus C
wield weild waild J
uillow wiln P
Filtshire Wil-shir J
windmill win mil J
ưine wain C
Windsor Win'zer J
wimow win u P
with weth cum, wath barbare C
urood ood J
woe wuu = woo C
wolf wulf walf C, ulf J
woman wəm'en P, E, um*en J
romb wuum C, M, umm J
women wii $\cdot$ men P , wim $\cdot$ en C , $=$ ouimem
wimen M, wimen J
aconder wund $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$ wou-dər C
wo- 0 - uu- $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{J}$
woo woe ulu J
wood wad P, wud C, wəd, better ud J
woof waf, better uuf J
wool wol P, wul C, wal, better ul J
$W_{\text {oolstead Us'ted }}$

word ward J
world world P
worldling warliq J
worldly wərli J
ecorn wuurn C
worsted war"sted genus pami, wasted
fucilitutis cansa $\mathrm{C},=$ onsted whist $\cdot$ ed M
would would P , wnuld C , wund J
rouldst widst wəudst barbare C, whust J ever- $\mathrm{r}-\mathrm{may}$ be wr- (?) J wrestle wrastle res-l J
arath rath C, rasth en a long M
wristband ris brend rize been J
wrought root $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$

## X

Xantippe Srentipi J

## I.

ye sii $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J}$
yoa jii W, C, jaA rustic, jee sii ii J year siir P. J, iir J
yeast jiist iist J
yellow Jæ. $\circ 0 \mathrm{~J}$
ycomax yem'sen yem-mun E , sce•mien sii-men ii-men by maxy J
yes jiis M, is J
yesterday is'terdee J yet jot e feminin M, it J yield vell.d iild J
yolk = yelk jelk M, Jook J
yonder jon'dar J
you Jiu, JAll barbai é C
young Јəq C
your seur C
youth siuth $P$, siuth $C$, soth $J$
7
zedoary zed-aeri

## 2. Words Like and Unlike.

Lists of this kind ought to supply the place of an investigation into the pums of the xrif th century, comparable with that already given for Shakspere (suprai p. 920). But their compilers had so much at heart the exigencies of the speller, that they often threw together words which could nerer have been pronouncel alike, but were often ignorantly confused, and they sometimes degenerated into mere distinguishers of words deemed synouymous which had no rclation in sound. This is particularly obscrvable in Price's lists, in which like and unlike words are all heaped together in admimble confusion. Cooper is the most careful in separating words which were really sounded exactly alike from those nearly alike, and those absolutcly unlike. But the earliest collection, and in many respects therefore the most important, is that by Richard Hodges. The full title is:

A special help to Orthographie: or, the True-writing of English. Consisting of such Words as are alike in sound, and unlike both in their signification and Writing: As also of such Words which are so neer alike in sound, that they are sometimes taken one for another. Whereunto are added diverse Orthographical observations, rery needfull to be known. Publisht by Richard Hodges, a School-Master, dwelling in Southwark, at the Midle-gate within Momtague-close, for the benefit of all such as do affect True-Writing. London, printed for Riclard Cotes. 16t3. 4to. pp. iv. 27.

In this the exact and approximate resemblances are distinguished, and at the conclusion the author has given a few instances, unfortumately only a few, of rarious spellings of the same sound, when not forming complete words. These are reproduced, together with some extracts from his orthographical remarks, which relate more strictly to orthoepy. He had, like most such writers, individual erotchets both as to spelling and sound, and had an intention, probably never carried into effect, of treating orthoepr, as shown by a short table of sounds with which he closes his brief work. Many of his instances are eutirely worthless, but it was thonght better to reproluce them all, marking with an asterisk those to which more attention should be paid, and to gain space by simply omitting his rerbal explanations, where they were not absolutely necessary, or did not present an interest of some kind. Nothing has been added, exeept a few words in square brackets [], and the original orthogrephy is reproduced.

Owen Price's list has also been given complete, but the explanations hare been similarly reduced. Ou the other hand, the whole of Cooper's chapter on the subject has been reprinted, restoring only the position of some words which had been accidentally misplaced. His orthography, which was also designed as a model, has been carefully followed.

## I. Richard Hodges's List of Like and Unlike Hords.

1. Such words as are alike in sound and unlike both in their siguification and writing, are exprest by different Letters, in these examples following:

## A

assent, ascent, a sent or savour. a peece to shoot withall, a picce, apiece. a loud, allow'd, aloud. aught, ought. air, heir. an arrow, a narrow. an tye, a nigh, an I. a note an oat-cake. *a notion, an occun. * annise, Agnes a woman's Christen name. an idle person, Ame. Alus, a laf (lessc) or a Maid. altar, alter. a ledge, alledge. a lie, allie. a light, alight. a lot, allot. a loan, alone. a lure, allure. adien, a due debt. he adjoyn'd me to do it, ajoyn'd-stool. a judge, adjudge. *assoon as she came in, she fell into a swown. autl, al (all). assault, a salt-cel. assigne, a signe. attainted, a tainted piece of flesh. attired, a tircd jade. a mate, to amate or daunt. a muze, amaze. a rest, arrest. a pease blossom, appease. a peal, appeal. a tract, attract. abbetter, a better colour than the other. * appear, a peer. *a wait-player, aucait, a weight. awry, a wry-mouthed Plaise. a qucint discourse, acquaint.

## B

to bow the knee, bough. *if you be comne so soone, become. *boughs, boweth, bouze. brous, brouze. Burbarie a countrey, Burbara, barberie fruit. * Brute a mau's name, brute, bruit. to baul in speaking, Baal, a bal to play with. Bul a man's name (Ball, ball). *bad, bade. *bead, Bede. beaker, Bccher, the hawk did beak herself, beer, biere. *a straw-berie, Sud-bury, Cauter-bury, etc. by, buy. *board, bor'd. *bill'd, build. bolt, to boult meal. bred, bread. *beholding, beholden. *a coney-burrou, horough. coney-burrows, boroughs. * blue, blew.

## C

* Cox, cochs, cocketh up the hay. * coat, sheep-cote, quote. * Cotes, couts, quoteth. *clause, elaweth, elaws.
cal (call), caul. evourse, corpsc. *courses, coursth, corpses. *Col' $l$, could. collar, choler. a cullor of apples, a colour. cousin, cozen. council, counscl. *common, commune. cockle and darnel, cochle-shel. champion, the champain field. *choosc, cheweth. a ciue or company, the cock crew. did chase, the chace. *you come, he is comne. crues or companies, a crusc or pot. a cruel master, wrought with crewel. consent, concont of music.


## D

*dem, to demne. *fallow-deer, deai friend. deep, Diep a town so calld. * diverse men, skilful divers. *a doe, his cake is dongh. descension, dissension. dollar, dolour. dolphin, the dautphine of France. the deviser of this, multiply the quotient by the divisorr.

## E

* Easter, queen Hester. * John Eaton hath eaten, a scholar of Aeton. cight, ait (islet). *earn, yern. emerods, emeralds. exercise, exorcise. *I eat my meat to-day, better than I ate it yesterday.


## F

did feel, was fee'd. *your fees, she feeth. I would fain, she did feign. did finde, were fir'd. felloes, fellows. Ihlitip, fillip. the foll, hath foald. for - tel, fowr-fold. forth, fourth. *furze, furieth, furs. fout, fowl. Francis, Frances. frcezc, friese-jerkin, shee freeth him. *to kil a flca, to flay of (off) the skin. fleas, fleweth, flayeth. to fleer, a fte'r away. flow, flower. *flours, floureth.

## G

I guest, a very welcome ghest. a ghost, thou go'st. "jests, gests, jestoth. *ox-gals, the gauls, he gauleth. *is
gage or pledge, to gaucge a ressel. a gitt-cup, guitt. groan, wel-grouen. to glister; a clyster. a guise, Mr. Guy's man.

## II

hart, heart. *a lisrd heart, I heard his royce. *hare, hair. hie, ligh, heigh-ho. thon liest, the highest fonrm. hide, she hied. *make haste, why hast thon done it? hole, whole. *holy, uholly. the hollow, to whoop and hollau. *home, whom, a holme tree. homes, IIolmes. *I hope to sce, I holp him to do his work. *hoops, hoopeth, u'hoopeth. him, hymne. *the bread doth hoar, whore. *u'hores, hoareth. his hue, Ifughe. hues, IIughes. *herald, IIarold. *huppily, haply.

## I

I, eye. incite, in sight. imure, in were, in your acconnt.

## J

jest, gest. gests, jests. to jet, a jeatstone. *the juice or sap, a joice to bear up the boards. a jalies, Mr. Jaques. gentle, a gentil or magot. a jointer, a tool to work withal, a woman's jointure. * a jurdon, the river Jordon.

## K

Mr. hnox, hee knocketh many knocks. *kennel, the chanel. to kil, the brickkilne.

## L

the Latine-tongue, a latten-ladle. *the cow lowed very loud. *take the least, lest hee bee angry. lemans, lemons. lesson, lessen. *litter; the hors-licter. * the lees of wine, to leese or loose ones labour. leaper's that cau leap, lepers full of leprosic. lo, low. lore, lower. a luster after evil things, a bright lustre. out-lawed, laud.

## II

manour-house, in a good maner. he banged his mantle upon the mantel-tree. Hedes, meads. meat, to mete. *a messaye, the messuage. *a meater that giveth meat to the eattel, a corn-meter, a meteor in the air. Martin, marten. Mr. Marshal, martial. *mone and bewail, his curne was mowen. moe or more, to moue. the cat did mouse well, amongst the corn-moughs. *hawksmues, he mucth his hawk, to muse. mite, might. a good minde, under-mined.

Maurice did dance the morice. * murrain murion a head piece. *millions, muskmelons.

## N

*Nash, to gnash. for nought, the figs were naught. nay, neigh.

## 0

O, oh ! ouce. gold-ore, oar, the owerof a debt, oars, owers. *ordure, order. our, hour. ours, hours.

## P

to pare the chcese, a pair. pause, paws, paweth. the palat of his mouth, he lay upon his pallet. Patl, pal (pall). parson, person. *pastor, pasture. *praise, preys, preyeth, prayeth. the common pleas, please. *Mr. Fierce did pearce it with a sword, the scholar did parse and construe his lesson. *she weareth her patens, letters patents. pillars, cater-pillers. pride, hee pried. *profi', prophet. the propper of it up, a proper man. *he hath no poucer to powre it out.

## R

rain, rein, reign. *reins, reigns, reigneth, raineth. a noble race, did rase the wals. the raics of the sun, to raise. ranker, rancour. red, hast thou read? *a redlish colour, a radish root. *reason, raisin. *reasons, reasoneth, raisins. *ream, realm. *reams, realms, Rhemes the name of a place. *Mr. lice took a rise, the rice. rite, right, write, a whecl-uright, Wright. *rites, rights, wheel-urights, righteth, writeth. * the rine whercin the brain lieth, the rinde of a pomegranate, the river lihine. Roe, a roe-buck, a row of trees. roes, roues, he roweth, a red-rose, Rose.
*when there was a rot amongst the sheep, I wrote him a letter. hee cuught [misprint for raught $=$ reached] it from of (off) the shelf, when hee urought with me. *a riding rod, when I rode. *1 rode along the road, hard-roed, my daughter Rhode, rowed apace. roads, Rhodes. *the highest room, the city of Rome (roume). *round, she rowned him in his car. *a tiffany-ruf (ruffe), a rough garmout. *ring, wring. ruig, wrung. hee rued, so rude, the cheeserack, ship-七track.

## S

slight, sleight. he was no saver in buying, a sweet-savour. savers, satours, savoureth. *the scas, to seine. *ceasing
from strife, eessing him to pay. *cease, eef (cesse) him so much. seller, wineceller. *the one sutler, was subtiller than the other. signe, either a sine or tangent. *censor, conser, censure. the third centurie, an herb eentory. *he did sheer the sheep, in Buckinghamshire. eite, sight, site. eitcd, quicksighted, wel sited. *a syren or mermaid, Simon of Cyrene. *a lute aud a cittern, a lemon or a eitron. MountSion, a seion or graf (graffe). *a sink to convey the water, the Cinque-ports. *so, to sowe the seed, to sere a garment. *the sole of a shoo, the soule and body. *the soles of his shoos, he soleth his shoos, soules and bodies bought and sold, the shoos were sol'd. *very sound, he fel into a swoun [compare assoon, a suoun above]. strait, streight. sloe, slow. *a sore, hee suove or sware. sly, Sligh. a hedge and a stile, a style or form of writing. did soar, the sower. * to shoot an arrow, a sute of apparel, a suit in law, Shute a man's sirname. *shoots, sutes of apparel, suits in law, shoote th, suteth, non-suiteth. succour, bloud-sucker. some, sum (summe). sun, son (sunne, somne).

## T

tame, Thame. tamer, Thamar. *tax, taeketh, tacks. *the treble and the tenor, a tenowr or form of words, the
tenure whereby a man holdeth his land. there, their. *terlieys, a turquois. time, thyme. the tide, tied together. toe, towe. toes, you tose the wool. toad, fingred and toed, he towed his barge. tole the hel, pay tol (toll). I told him. I toled the bel. too, two, to. tract, I trackt him. a treatise, diverse treaties. *I had then more work than I could do. throove, throne. *it was through your help that I came thorow. throat, if he throw't away.

## V

vain, vein. *a venter or utterer of commodities, to venture. *venters, ventures, ventureth. vial, viol.

## W

*a way, to walk in, a weigh of cheese. ways, weighs, weigheth. *water, Walter. *wuters, wateroth, Walters. wait, weight. *waits, weights, waiteth. *if you were, you would wear. a wichtree, a witeh. *wood, would. *he wooed her, he was woode. *a wad of straw, woul to die withall.

## Y

*yew, you and I, $V$ and $I$ are vowels. *yews, cse. your, put this in ure, a bason and ewre. yours, basons and ewres, he in-ureth himself. yoe that are wise, yea.

Such words which are so neer alike in sound, as that they are sometimes taken one for another; are also exprest by different Letters, in these examples following:

## A

ask, ax, acts. Abel, able. amase, amace. al- one, alone. actions, axiomes. arrows, arras. advice, advise. Achor, acre. ant, aunt. accidence, accideuts. as, as (asse).

## B

(to play at) bowls, (to drink in) boles. baron, barren. barrow, borrow, borough. Boyse, boys. bath, bathe. bands, bonds. bare, bear. begin, biggin. breath, breathe. banble, Bable, bable (babble). bile, boyl. Bruce, bruise, brewis (brews), brewhouse. (the little childe began to) batle (when his father weut to the) battel. bore, boar. arrant, errand. bowes (and arrows), boughs. bittern, bitter. boasters, bolsters. both, boothe. best, beast. (your book is not so wel) bost, boast. buots, boats.
eopies, copise. coughing, coffin. (when hee) cough't, caught, coat. cummin, coming. ches (chesse), chests. chaps, chops. chare, chair, cheer. capital, capitol. currents, currants. consequence, consequents. cost, coast. causes, causers.

## D

dum, done. (he was buta) dunse, duns. decent, descent, dissent. descension, dissension. discomfite, discomfort. (backs and) does, (one) dose. device, devise. decease, disease. dust, (why) dost (thou). dearth, death, deaf. desert, desart.

## E

east, yeest. earn, yarn. (you must) either (take out of the hedge the) ether (or the stake). cars, yeers. els, else.
eminent, imminent. cron now, inow, inough. Eli, Ely.

## F

false, fals. froise, phrase. fares, fairs. fens, fence. fought, fault. follow, fallow. fur, fir. farm, form, fourm (to sit upon). l'harez, fairies. firmer, former. (a smal) thie (may) flec. fins, fiends.

## G

gallants, gallons. garden, guardian. glaf (glasse), glof (glosse). gesture, jester. (a) jerkin, (never left) jerking (his horsc).

## H

Howel, howl, hole. whose, hose. homely, homilic. hallow, hollow. guef (guesse), ghests. whores, hoarse, horse. his, hif (hisse). hens, hence. holly, holy. Hepher, heifer.

## I

James, jambs. ingenious, ingenuous. impassable, impossible. imply, imploy. it, yet. idol, idle. inough, inow. eyes, ice. Joice, joys.

## K

know, gnaw. known, gnawn. knats, gnats.

## L

lines, loyns. lowe, low. lower, (why do you) lowre. (the) lead (was) layd, (he) led. (the) leas (were added to his) lease. lies, lice. loth, loathe. leases, leassces.

## II

Marie, marry, marow, morror. mines, mindes. vince, mints. mif (misse), mists. (to) mowe, (a) mough (ot corn). maids, meads. mower, more moles, moulds. myrrle, mirth. (a) mouse, (barley) moughs. morning, mourning. (hawks-) mues, (a) musc. mistref (mistresse), mysteries.

## N

neither, nether. nones, nonce. ncedles, needlef (ncedlesse). (his) necce (did) neese. never, necr.

## 0

once, nnes. owner, homour. ought, oft. owne, one, on.

## P

pare, pearc. patens, paterns. patients, patience. pullen, pulling. passable, possible. pens, pence. pease, peace. plot, plat. prineipal, priuciple. (to) powre (out), (the) poore. prince, prints. Princes, princef (princesse). place, plaise. past, paste. presence, presents. price, prise. puls, pulse. prose, prowf (prowesse). pearee, peers. Pilate, pilot. plot, plat (of ground). parasite, paricide. poplar, popular. promises, premises. please, plays. poles, Pauls (stecple). playd, plead.

## R

reed, reade. wrought, wrote, rote. rase, raise. rasour, raiser. rat, rot. real, ryal, royal. reverent, reverend. wroth, wrath, rathe.

## S

(when they had filled their) sives (rith onions and) cives. sithes, sighes. science, seions. signet, cygnet. cypref(trees), cipers (hatbands), ciphers. sirra, surrey. sowe (seed), sow (and her pigs). sower, sowre (grapes). Sows, somse. sores, sourse. sleaves, sleeres. seeth, seethe. say, sea. sex, seets. steed, stead. slowe, slough. spies, spice. saurs, sause. sense, sents. seas, cease. scizing, ceasing. (why do you wear out your) shoos (to sce the) shewes? society, satietie. sloes, sloughs. Sir John (sent for the) surgeon (chirurgion). Cicelie, Sicilie. Cilicia, Silesia. sheep, ship. sins, since.

## T

tens, tense, tents, tenths. tongs, tongues. trough, trophie. tome, tombe. tost, toast. thy, thigh. trope, troop (troup). thou, though.

## V

volley, valley, value. vale, vail. vaeation, vocation. verges, verjuice. vitals, victuals.

## W

wilde, wield. weary, wory (the sheep). whether, whither. wiles, wildes. (they took away the fishermens) weels (against their) wils. wines, windes. wiek, week. (thou) wast, waste. wieked, wieket. wrest, wrist. (the man that was in the) wood (was almost) woode. wist, wisht.

Examples of some words, wherein one sound is exprest diverse ways in writing.
Sea-ted, con-cei-ted, cea-sing, sei-zing, se-rions, Sce-ra, ce-dar, Manas-seh, Phari-see, Wool-sey, sche-dtule.
See:ded, suc-cee-ded, sie-lings, over-se-ers, pur-sey or fat men, mercie (or merey).
Si-nister, sy-magogue, Sci-pio, Scy-thian, Cy-prian, ci-vil, Ce-cil, Se-rern, pur-sui-rant.
Si-lence, ci-ted, quick-sigh-ted, sig-ning, sci-ence, sy-ren, Cy-rene, sa-ti-ety.
These scllables aforegoing, may suffice, to give a taste, of al the others in this kinde.
touch is to bee pronouncet short like tuch.

Ra-chel, in the Old Testament, where the last syllable thereof is pronounc't like the last syllable in sa-ehel.
ch in architect must not bee pronounc't like $k$ : nor in any word beginning with arch . . . arch-angel . . . is onely excepted.
win-ler and wil-tler where the first syllable in either of them must bee pronome't long as in wine and rite . . . . some men cal the winde, the wind . . . . in the word wil-der-nes, it must be pronomnc't like wil.
[ $e t$ ] short, as in these words head, read, stead, hea-dy, rea-dy, stecu-dy . . . . it is therefore . . . . . very meet to put an $e$ in the end of some such words, as in reude, the present tense, to distinguish it from the short sound of read, the preter imperfect tense.
al words of more than one syllable ending in this sound $u s$. . . are written with ous, bnt pronounc't like us, as in glo-ri-ous, etc.
it is our chistom to pronounce al, like au, and to write it in stead thereof, as in balk, walk, talk, stalk, chalk, malkin, calkin, calliers, falcons; as also, in almond, alms, halm, balm, palm, calm,
shalm, psalm, malmsey; and in like maner in these words, namely, in calf, half, salve, salves, ealve, ealves, halve, halves: as also in scalp, sealps.
the sound of $c e$ before some letters is exprest by ie as in field, shield, fiel'd, Priest, piece, grief, grieve, thief, thieve, ehief, atchieve, brief, velieve, relief, sicge, liege, Pierce, fierce, biere, lieutenant, which is to be pronounc't like lieftenant.
howsoever wee use to mrite thus, leadeth it, maketh it, noteth it, raketh it, perfameth it, etc. Yet in our ordinary speech . . . wee say leads it, notes it, rakes it, perfumes it.

But I leave this, as also, many other things to the consideration of such as are judicious: hoping that they wil take in good part, whatsocver hath bin done, in the work aforegoing: that so, I may bee incouraged yer long, to publish a far greater, wherein such things as have bin heer omitted, shal bee spoken of at large. In the mean time (for a conclusion) I have thought it good, to give a taste thereof, in the syllables and words following; wherein are exprest the true sounds of al the vowels and dipthongs, which are proper to the English-tongue.

The true sounds of al the slort and long vowels, are exprest in these examples.

| ad | lad, | ade lade |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ed | led, | ead lead |  |
| id | rid, | eed reed, | ide ride |
| od | lod, | aud laud, | oad load |
| ud | gud |  |  |
| ood | good | ood food |  |

The tine sounds of al the diphthongs, are exprest in these examples.
ai day
eu dew
oi coy
oi coi-ness
ou cow

To the above miscellaneons remarks of Hodges, mar be added the following quotation from Eilward Coote's English Schoolmaster, 4to. 1673 , the exact meaning of which it is difficult to discover, but which scems to imply some old scholastic tradition in the spelling out of words, recalling the rillage children's celebrated method of spelling
 o.no ull ona liii.) Probably many similar traditions were still in existence in the "dames' schools" of a few years ago.

Rob. What if you cannot tell what rowel to spell your syllable with, how will you do to find it? as if you would write from, and know not whether you should write it with a or o.

Joh. I would try it with all the vowels thus, fram, frem, frin, from; now I have it.

Rob. But Good-man Taylor our Clerk when I went to school with him, taught me to sound these vowels otherwise than (methinks) you do.

Joh. How as that?
Rob. I remember he taught me these syllables thus: for bad, bed, bid, bod, bud, I learned to say, bade, bid, bide, bode, bude, sounding a bed to ly upon, as to biil or command, and bid, as bide
long. as in abide; bud of a Tree, as bude long, like rude: for these three yowels, $a, i, u$, are very corruptly and ignorantly taught by many unskilful Teachers, which is the cause of so great ignoranee of the true writing in those that want the Latin tongue.

Joh. You say true; for so did my Dame teach me to pronounce; for sa, se, si, so, su, to say, se, see, si, soo, sou, as if she had sent me to see her sow: when as se should be sounded like the sea; and su as to sue one at Law.
[In a marginal note it is added:] Let the unskilful teachers take great heed of this fault, and let some good scholars hear their children pronounce these syllables.

## II. Ouen Price's Tuble of the Difference between Words of Like Sound.

## A

Abcl, able. abét, aibbot. diccidence, siccident, incident. account, accómpt. acre, áchor the first valley, the Israclites entred, in the land of Canaan, dicorn. afféction, affectátion. all, art. Ale, ail. cillcy, ally. aim to lèvel, alms. aleis ough, wo is me, a Litss, (ilias, aloes. Alexander, alexanders, or alixander a plant. alóud, allóved. iltar, cilter. Ammon, Amnon. ámple, amble. angel, cingle to fish with hook, and line, dincle. aimmat, énnals. arróuse to stir up, dirroutes darts. ascént, assent, consent. aiss, ashes any fuel burnt to dust, ash a tree, ask to enquire. acts, ax. asp a serpent that kills with its looks, hasp of door. assémble, vesémblc, dissémble. ant, aunt. anstérc, oyster. aury, airy windy empty. dirrant meer, very, right, érrand búsiness that one goes about. assáy to try, prove, éssay a trial, attempt. assistants, assistance. ascertain to make sure, a certain sure. ultaich to apprehénd, arrést, attáque to face about, to charge with a ship. attaiut, attain.

## B

Baible, baible a toy fit for children. Bachelaur of Arts, bachelor one unmarried. beicon, béacon. badge, bateh, bag. bail, bald, baul, ball. bay a colour, bay an harbour for ships. baiz thin eloth, baies a garland, or leaves of bay tree. bait meant to allure or entice with, make bate that sets folks by the ears, beat to strike. band an armie, a tic, bond obligation, bill, imprisonment. bane poison, míscrie, banes repórt made of mâtrimonie. banner, pamier. Bárbara a woman's name, Bärbarie a part of Africa, beirberrie a trec. bark, barque a little ship. battel a fight, battles diet in a College. brittlement, báttledore. bce, be is, are. béaver eastor, béver food eaten between dimer and supper. been wast, were, bimn a hutch to kecp bread in. beer, bier. béllowes, béllies. bénefice, bénefit. beriy defile, bewray discorer, betráy. beséch, besiége. body, baudy. boll to wash in, bouls to play with, bouls to drink in. boar, bore to pieree, bore the long hole in the gun. book that we read in, buck a deer, buck of clothes to be washed.
boult to range meal with, bolt a great arrow, door bar. bow to shoot with, borgh, bow to bend. boys little lads, broys great logs of wood floating in the bay to guide in the ships. burnt, brunt an assâult, encounter. búry, béry. buy, by and by. biggin a little coife, begin. bóaster, bélster a great pillow. brach, bréeches. breed, bred that is reared, bread. brain, brawn boar's flesh, bran.

## C

Cabinet, caibin. qualm suddain fit, calm still, quiet. Cules or Cadiz a city in Spain, Callis a town in France, chálice. caul a dress for a womans head, caul of a beast, call to name, eale so the Scots call cábbage. cánons rules for men to walk by, cimon a great grm, canon a Cathodral man. capicious, capablc. cúpital, cépitol. carriage, carrets or carots, chíriot. caivier one that carries, caréir a gallop, with full speed. cavalier a horseman, caríller a wrángling, cáptious fellow. centorie a plant, centurie any 100 years of the ages of the churches. sentincl one that watcheth in a garrison, kennel, coinnel, chiomel. chittcl a mans personal estate, cattel tame beasts. case, cause. consor a reformer of manners, censer a perfuming pan. chafe, chaff. chance, change. chapters as those in the Bible, chapiters the heads of the pillars of the vail Exod: 36, 38. chare or chore, a small houshold business, chear to make merry, cheer countenance, or good victuals, chair a seat to sit on. chap a narrow chink, cheap. chámpion, cámpaign large, even fields. check, chick, check one side of the face. chest, chess, cheese. child, chill. cidar drink made of apples, cedur. clamour, clamber. cittern instrument of musick, citron a fruit. cloy, claw. claws, close. clasp, claps he clappeth. coat, quote, cote a little plat of inclosed ground, cottagc. choler, collar, scholar, collier, colour. could, cold, cool'd. gallop, collop a rasher of bacon. comb to kemb ones head with, honcy-comb, come. cómment, comet a blazing star. cómma, common publick, commune to talk, converse together, common a ground not enclosed, commons a scholars allowance in meat, cumin an herb, cuminsect the seed thereof. complice a partáker, accómplish, confits or confects dried sweet meats, comfort. considerate, considerablc. carol a song, coral a red
shrub that children rub their gums with. crouner or corroncr that makes inquest after a murther, cormer a by private place. cólonol a commánder of a thonsand, cólonic a plantation. consumption, consummation. counscl advíce, s-e-l, corncil the Kings council, or a synod of learned men, c-i.1. course rough, corse dead body, course to go a hunting, curse to wish evil to one. cousin, cózen. currunt that will pass, as good money, current a stream, corants small raisins, crasie infirm, sickly, crased crackt, distracted. crocodile monster in the river Nilus, cockatrice serpent that kills with its very smell. cox a mans name, cockis do crow.

## D

Deféction, defect. defér, differ. díamond, diadem. diary, dairy. damn to condemu, dam up to stop, keep out the light, dem a stopping of the water betore a mill, damp a noysom rapour out of the earth, clame a mistress, or any beast that brings forth young. damsin a little black plum, damosel a brave young virgin. decéased, disćase, decéss depárture. deer, dectr. déitic, ditty. délicate, délegate. deméan to behave, demain the means of a Lord, or a Cathedral, deménd. demúre, demúr. désart wilderness, desért to forsake, desért morit. descént, dissént, décent. desirous, desírable. discómfort, discómfit. disgést to concóct victuals, digest to set in order. dew small drops from the skie, due a debt, adiert. dent or dent, din, dine to eat about noon. dissolute, désolate. doe, do, dough, daw. doth as he doth give, doeth he maketh. drain, drawn. dray a sled, draw. Don Sir, master in Spauish, done, dm docst thon dost make, dost a sign of the second person, as thou sayest or dost say, dust powder.

## E

Ear, wherewith one bears, car to till ground, or to plough, cars of corn, cro before, year 12 months. early, yearly. earn, yorn to be moved to compassion, yarn. earth, hearth. east where the sun riseth, yest barm, ease. egg to provoke, to set on, egg which the hen layeth, edge, hedge. cldern a tree, cller more old. Eliézer, Elctizar. Embassador, embassage. emerauld, emcroids, piles. eminent, imminent. erccigement, engagement. ephe, ephod. epoch, epod a sort of verses. Listher, Hester a

Saxon Idol, Easter, yesterday. expériment, cxperience. eyes the windows of the head, ice.

## F

Fair, fare, fur, fear. füshion mode, manner of apparel, fushions or farsy, rumning botehes upon horses. fuin, feign. fávourer, fárourite. felon a thief, fellon a swelling sore on the finger. fiends, fins. findes he find. eth, fine. fillip, Plitip. flee to shun, aroid, flet to pull off the skin, fic a small creature that doth fly, flea a small skipping ereature, flecee the wooll of one sheep. fleet nary, fleet swift, flit to waver, flitch, flix or flux bloody issue. floor, fluwer fine meal, flower of a plant. foal, fool, foil, foil'd, fold. foul, foul. foord a shallow passage in a river, "fford. fore, four. forth, fourth. friese shag'd eloth, freese to congeal. Priery where Friers live, fiery, ferry. froise a small pan-cake, phrase. fierse fine, hairy skins, furz prickly shrubs. fundament, forndútion.

## G

Gantlet a souldier's buf, or iron glove, Gantlop two ranks of souldiers that scourge a malefactor that is condemned to run between, with his back stript. gard or great hem of a garment, guard a company of men that defend or secure ones person. guardian a tutor, or one intrusted with a fatherless child, garden au inclosed piece of ground. géntiles heathens, géntil a magot, géntle mild, generous, tractable, gentél curious in apparel or carriage. gésture, jester. gist where the ling lodges in his journey, or progress, jest. glútinous, glúttonous. slister, glyster or elyster, cluster. God, goad. grass, grase to eat grass, grace. gray a colour, grey a badger, an earth hog. Giecee a countrey, greese a small ascent, steps on the floor, cmbergreise a perfume, grist corn bronght to be grinded. grin to wry the mouth, grind to bruise small, as we do corn. groun, grow g. guess, guest. gun, gone.

## H

Hail God save yon, hail stones, hate to lug, to draw. hair, heir, hare air, wre they be. liy to make hast, hay, high, highth loftiness, lighness. heurt, hurt. hartsthom a long leaved plant. hartshorn which the hart bears. here,
hear. heard I did hear, hard solid, stiff, herel a drove of small cattel. hearing giving ear to, horring a seafish. heron a man's name, hern a crane. heathens, heavens. herse, hoarse, horse. hallow, hollow, hollo to bawl. holly, holy. hole, whole. home, whom. hore a frizzling frost, whore hew to cut, to fell trees, hue visage, physionomie. hu and cry, hugh a mans name.

## I

Jambs, James. idol, idle. jewes, Jewish, juice. imply, employ. impostor a great cheater, impositor one that takes the names of such as are absent, or tardy. incite, insight. inconsillerate, ineonsiderable. inn, in. Joab, Job. Joice a womans name, rejoice, joist a little beam in building. itel, hiteh. its his, $i t$ 's it is, ' $t i$ is it is. judge, jugs. judicious, judicial.

## K

Keen, ken, kin, kindred. Kill, chyle. keel, Kiln. kneud, need.

## L

Ladder, leather. Iamb, lame. launce, to cut off dead, rotten flesh, laneh to put out a ship from harbour. last that they make shoes upon, last after all the rest, farthest, last to endure, hold out. latton tin, Latine Roman language. leaden, Leyden. league, leg, liégemun. leaper, leper, leopard. lease (with a soft, s) to pick up shottered corn, lease (with a hard, s) an indeuture, mritings, least smallest, less smaller, lest a note of forbidding, as lest I chastise you. leaman concubine, whore, lemon a kind of an apple. legion, legends. liturgie, lethargie. lessen, listen. lies false tales, liee small, biting worms. limber weak, limner one that draws pictures. limn, limb. line whereby we work, or write straight, loin flank, hanch. Lions a town in France, lion a ficree beast, liorn a great cross beam. letter, litter, licter a sedán carried between two horses. lose to let go, to let slip unknown, loose (with a soft, s) to undo, to slack, loose (with a hard, s) debaucht, lewd. lost, loss.

## N

Main might, chiefest, main- prize, suretiship, bail, mane of a horse. mare that breedes colts, maior the chief ruler
of a citie, major a commander by one degree higher then a Captain. more, moor a marsh, moor a man's name. mansion a chief house of abode, manchet a little white loaf. mámer fashion, mánners grod carriage, mamour a great farm by heritage, monure to dung the ground. map, mop, march the first moneth, mareh to go as souldiers go together, Mars, mersh a moor. mairred, marvied. murtin, martyr. mercer, merchant. muce, mass. mast the biggest pole in the ship, muste acorn. meat food, mete to méasure, meet fit, conreuient. méssage, méssuage. meteor, metre. might, mite. mind, mine. minee, mint. minister, minster, minstrel. moat a deep pond about a house, mote the least dust. morter made of lime and sands, mortar that we pound any spice in. mo more, mow rick of corn, move to cut down hay, or corn. mó entibank, Móuntague.

## N

Nought bad, naughty, nought nothing. Nazarene, Nazarite, neather lower, neathermost lowest, neither none of them. nest tender, effeminate, necee ones sister's, or brother's daughter, nice curious, delicate. nuy, neigh, nigh. nonce of purpose, nones the first part of the moneth in the Roman accompt. news, nose, noise. notorions, notable.

## 0

Oar to row with. ore metal not refined, o're for over. odour sweet smell, udder the pap of a cow. off with a double, f , after a word of action, as to cut off, to draw off, of before the word it belongs to, with one, f , as the fear of God. one the first in number, oun. once, one's. our, Howr. Ho, o or ough a note of exclaiming or bemoaning, otce.

## P

Palate, palliate, pallet a little low bed to be roled up. pars, pause. pails, pales kind of stakes. pale a compass, appale to discourage. panes, pains. pattern coppie, patent, pattens wooden soals. patient, putience. pease a grain of corn, poises weights, to a clock, or jack, prace, peech, picee part. peer, pear. pare, pair, repuir. person the word man used with some reverence, parson a kind of minister. pebble, pople. pens, pence. Pilute, pilot, pirute. pistol, pestil wherewith we
pound in a mortar, epistle. píttious an object of pittie, pittiful one given to pittie. place, plaice a little broad fish. plad a course cloak, such as the Hilanders wear, plat a small parcel of ground, plait to set the hair in order, plot a cúnning desígn. pley a game, a comedie, plea a defénce, excúse. Common pleas, please. plush, over-plus, nonplus. pottle, bottle. précedent a pattern to authorize any action, precédent foregoing, Président a head of a College, or chief Ruler. price, Pryce. prize, praise. prineipal, principle. private, privets small trees. privie to, privies. pórtend. preténd. poor one in want, pore to fix ones eyes, and mind upon any thing. powr to shed, to throw down, powe . might. pray, proy, pry. puppies, puppets.

## Q

Quável strife bickering, quárel of glass. quarrie, querie. quench, quince. queen, quean.

## R

Rack, wrack ruine. rays, raise. rise (with a soft, s) when one lifts up ones self, rise (with a hard, s) the original, rise a sort of corn. rase, race. reaeh to fetch a thing to one, retch to stretch, rich, wreteh. refuge, réfuse off-scouring. rolict, reliques. revéal, rével. revile, rival, rivel. rain, reign. reins of the back, reins of a bridle. raiser, one that stirreth, rasour that we share with. read I have read, red. real, royal. réverent, réverend. right, rite, write. roe, row as slaves do in a boat, row or rew of trees, raw. Rómans, romanee. Rome the chiefest City in Italy, rome to race, and tear all before one, room a space, a chamber. rorgh ruggid, course, boisterous, ruff plaited together, as a ruff band, rough-eust. rule, rowel.

## S

Sale, sayl. salve, save. same, Psalm. Saviour, savour. Satan, satton smooth, silken stuff. seareé, sear's. scent, sent. sehool, scull. scholars, seallers little boats. see, sea an ocean, see the Pope's jurisdiction, as the sea of Rome. seal as to seal a letter, or writing, siel to plaister the roof of a room. seasin possession, season opportúnitie. seet, set. seets, sex. seargeunt one that arresteth men, surgeon chinurgeon, that heales wounds, Sir John a Kinight's name. sharc, shear, sheer, shire. shave, sheave as of corn, sheathe, shive
a slice of bread, ciere that we winnow corn with. sheep, ship. shell, shield. shew a brare sight, shew to manifest, shee. Shiloh, Siloe, Silonk. shoot, shout. shovel, shole as a shole of fishes. shut, soot. $\sin$ k, cinque five. ciuqueports haven towns. sin, siug, sign. siled, sighted, eited quoted. sith seeing that, sithe that we mow hay with, seethe to boyle. sledge the smith's great iron hammer, slead a dray that drag things in. sloe, slow. smuteh to bcsmear, as with soot, much a great deal, mieh to play the trewant. so, sew. soar to flie high like a kite, sore a young dece, sore painful, tender, gralled flesh. some, summ as summ total. $s-0-n$ the father's son, $s-u-n$ the shining sun. Spaniard, spaniel a shag'd dog. sphear spear. spies, spiee. spit, spittle that we spit out, or an Almes house. stable. staple as staple commoditie, staple of the door, staple the length of the wool. stars, starts black birds that do mischicf the pigeons, stairs. stature, statute, statuc. stcad, bedstead, steed a stately horse. steel that men edge tools with, stile a form, or facultie in writing. steer a bullock, steer to guide a ship. stood did stand, stud a small post in a tear wall. storie, historie, straight even, quickly, streight a distress, perplexitie. succour, suctier. suit to agree with, suit in law, or of clothes, sewet the fat of becf, or mutton. swound to faint, sound entire, without flaws.

## T

Tales, tails. talons, tallies, talent. taber a small drum, or timbrel, taper a stately wax eandle. tar, tares, tears drops from the eyes, tear as to tear cloth, break, eut. teach, learn. theams subjects that we descant upon, teams of horscs. thither, there, their. thorow as to break thorow all, through by means of, throw to cast. thrush, thrust. thyme or tyme, a sweet plant, time. tattle, title, tittle a point. to a sign of a verb, $t-0-e$ the foot's toc, too, as too much, too also, two, tow. tomb, tome. tongues languages, tongs a pair of tongs. torn
that tomers do make, torn rent, turn to move round. track the picture of ones fuotsteps, traek to follow one, step, by step, traet a handling of this, or that point. treaty a parley concerning peace, treatment, treatise, treatie conference concerning peace. truee, truths. truss, trust. turbent the Turk's great linnen Cap, turbot a byrt, a great sea fish.

## V

Tacation, vocation. $v$-fl-i-n empty foolish, $v-e-i-n$ in the body. rail or covering, vale to put off, to submit, as to vale bonct, vale or valley. veteh a sort of corn, feteh to bring. volley. vial a great cup, viol an instrument of musick. visage feature in a face, rizard a false kind of face, to cover oues face. vital, vietuals. umbles the inmards of a Deer, humble. umpire, empire. us, Uz Job's countroy.

## TV

Wait, weight, waits, the citic musicians, uaites waitcth. IFales the true Brittain's countrey, vales great thrids in hair stuffs, uealls, bewail. walk, awake, wakes a parish festival time, walks. wand, wan, wain. wardship, worship. way, weigh. wear, were, wears, dams where they catch fish. wicked, wieket. wilie cunning, wnweldie awkward, uild untame, zecild to turn a sword about. wim, wind that blowes, wine. wipe to rub off dirt, weep to shed tears. wite one that by a compact with the Devil doth bewitch, witch a trap to catch vermin, which that, who. wo alas, woe to be a suitor to a mistress. woad dying stuff, wood fewel, timber. wrap, rap. writ, write, wheelwright. wrote, wrought, rote. wreneh, rinse to wash slightly.

## Y

yea, I. yet, It, u'it, yest a tree in the church yard. ewe, you. yolk of eggs, yoke that oxen draw under, oak. yore in old time, covr a small neck'd perter pot.

## III. Cooper's Lists of TFords Like and Unlike and Introductory Remarlis.

De Variis Scripturis.

1. Quedam scribintur vel cum $c$ vel $s$; ut duce apua, iee glacies, farce farcio, raee stadium, riee oryza, sauce condimentum, cesser censor, scarsc vix, seissors
cisers forfex, cellar cella, sinders scoria ferri, sives porrum sectile, eivet zibethma, sluse emissarium, sourse fons, syder melites, nourse nutrio, peneil peuicillus, chace lucus, fugo, cte.
2. Cum unicâ literâ finali, vel istâ duplicatâ, ut fir, firr, firre, abics; Sic er erro, son filius, sum summa, star stella, trespass transgressio, war bellum.
3. Cum dg vel ege aut age; ut allege allego, college collegium, privilege privilegium; vel alledg etc. cabbidg brasca, saucidg tomaculum; vel cabbage, sausage.
4. Cum im in vel em en; ut empoverish depaupero, endure sustento; vel impoverish, indure, etc.
5. Cum ea vel $e e, e a$ vel $e$ ut in capite 8 , reg. 1 [quoted suprà p. 82], cum ai rel ei cap. 7, reg. 1 [quoted suprà p. 126], cum and vel $a$; ut chance casus, gard stipo, mall malleus; prance superbè salio; vel chauncc, etc.
6. Cum unicâ literâ vel ipsâ duplicatâ ; ut herring halec; at later tardius, latter posterior distingui debent. Latini derivativa ut plurimùm primitivorum in scriptione sequuntur formam, quamvis simplex latinè auditur sonus consone, ct anglicè duplicatur ; ut abolish aboleo, cancl canalis, amity amicitia, minister minister, mariner à mare navigator, et liturgy liturgia.

Si varia hominum scripta presertim privata consulamus, tantam libertatem, tantam varietatem, tantam incongruentiam et imperitiam videamus; quod satis hujusmodi suscepti tum necessitatem tum utilitatem demonstrare possit: In quo analogia et optimè scribendi regulæ exhibeantur. Legitur
apricock abricot malum armenium
balet balad canticum
bankrupt bankrout decoctor
butcher boucher lanio
butlor boiteler promus
budget bouget bulga
charet chariot currus
clot clod gleba
cumber comber impedio
curd crud coagulum
faign foign fingo
fraight frait velatura
hartechoak artichoak cynara
imposthume apostcon apostema
licorice liquorish glycyrrhiza
plaight pleit plico
slabber slaver conspergo
squinsy squinancy angina
vat fat labrum
yelk yolk vitellus
Cum plurimis aliis; in quibus omnibus relegarc literas supervacancas, atque eas, quæ veram pronunciationem proximè attingunt, seligere debemus; nisi quædam alia privata ratio aliter suadet; ut in sequentibus observationibus.

## I.

Voces quæ eandem habent pronunciationom, sed diversam significationem et scribendi modum.

## A

All omnes, awl subula. altar altare, alter muto are sunt, air aer, heir, hæres, ere long statim
ant formica, aunt amita
ascent ascensus, assent assensus
assault invado, a salt bit bolus salitus

## B

baies lauri, baiz pannus villosus
ball pila, baul vocifero
bare uudus, bear fero.
be sum, bee apes
berry bacca, bury sepelio
bil'd rostratus, build ædifico
bitter amarus, bittour butio
bows torquet, boughs rami, bowze perpoto
bread panis, bred nutritus
browz frondo, brows palpebræ
borne portatus, bourn rivulus
buy emo, by per

## C

calender lævitas præsertim panni, Calendar calendarium
call voco, catl omentum
censer thuribulum, censor censor, censure judico
centory herba centaria, contury centuria sive spatium centum anuorum
chair cathedra, charc negotiolum
chas'd fugatus, chast castus
chews masticat, chuse eligo
clause clausula, claws unguis coat tunica, quote cito cozen illudo, cousin germanus chord chorda subtensa, cord funis collar capistrum, choller bilis comming veniens, cummiu cuminum cool'd refrigeratus, could possem coughing tussiens, coffin sandapila coarsc levidensis, course cursus counsel consilium, council curia colors colores, cullers oris rejicula car'd curabam, card pectino.

## D

dam mater, damn condemno
dear carus, deer fera
disscnsion dissensio [no second word given]
doe dama, do ago, dow massa farinaria don factus, dien fuscus tew ros, due debètus

E

emrald smaragdus, emrods bemorrhoides F

Ala pulex, flay rel fea excorio
flemm phlebotomum, phlegm vel flem, phlegma
forth cx, fourth quartus
foir pulcher, fare ligurio
fir abies, fur pellis, far longè, furz genista spinosa
fit aptus, fight pugnabat
G
gest gesta, jest jocus, jister jocator, gesture gestus go'st vadis, ghost spiritus grone gemo, grown accritus

## H

hair crinis, hare lepus
hake screo, hauld accipiter
har't cerrus, heart cor
hard durus, heard auditus, herd grex
hear audio, here bic
holy sanctus, wholy totaliter
hew scindo, thue color
hy festino, high altus
higher altior, hire stipendium
hollo vocifero, hollow concarus

## I

ive ira, eyer observator insight prospectus, incite incito ile volo, Isle insula, oil oleum in in, inn diversorium jerkin tunica, jirking flagellaus

## L

lamb agnus, lamm verbero
lead plumbum, led ductus
leuse charta redemptionis, leash ternio canum
le rper saltator, leper leprosus
lessen diminuo, lesson lectio
least minimus, lest that ne; (sed potius rice rersâ lerst nc)
lcman pellex, lemon malum hesperium
limb membrum, limen miniculor
lo en, low humilis
line linen, loin lumbus
lustre splendor, luster lustrum

## II

manner mos, manour prædium miak mas, mail lorica
meat cibus, mete metior
message nuncium, messuage villa
mouse (mouze) murcs capto, mous fænilia
muse meditor, mues accipitrem in ergastulum compingit, sea meres fulice, mufe cum $f$ foramen per sepimentum

## N

nether inferior, weither nec nought malus, nought nibil a notion notio, an ocean oceanus

## 0

0 interjoctio rocandi, oh doloris vel rehenentix, ow debeo
oar remus, oar ore balluea, o're super
our noster, hour hora
oren agnosco, onc unus
order ordo, ordure stercus

## P

pair par, pare rescindo, pear pyrus pazse pauso, paws ungues pastor, pasture pascuum pleas cansa, please placeo pickt her eam elegit, picture pictura prophet propheta, profit commodum pray precor, prey preda
pluin pruumu, plemb perpendicularis
porw fundo, power potestas

## R

rain pluvia, reign regno, reins reues
raise suscito, raies radii
ranker olidior, rancour odium
race stadium, rase expungo
rare rarus, rear attollo
read lectus, red ruber
read lego, reed arundo
raisin uva passa, reason ratio
right rectus, rite ceremonia, write scribo,
cart-ucright carpentarius
$r y$ secale, wry obliquus
roe capreolus, row series rote memoriter, wrote scripsi
ruff sinus, rough asper

## S

say loquor, sey panmus rasus
saver parsimonicus, savor sapor
seas maria, seize appreheudo
sell vendo, cell cellula
seller venditor, cellar cella
sight visus, site situs, cite cito
sise senio, size glutino
senson tempestas, seisin possessio
seat sedes, deceit fraus
share pars, shear tondeo
shoo calceus, shew demonstro
slo prunum sylvestre, slow tardus
stairs gradus, stares aspectat so sic, sow suo
soar subvolo, sore ulcus
sought quæsitus, saw't id ridi
spider aranea, spi'd her observabam ipsam

* suctier antha, swecour suppetior
some body aliquis, sum summa
sun sol, son filins
sure certus, suer candidatus, sewer pregustator
sweep verro, swipe tolonus


## T

tacks clavi, affigit, taeh uncina, tax tributum
tenor, tenure tenura
their slus, there ibi
time tempus, thyme thymus
tide flusus et refluxus maris, $t t^{\prime \prime} d$ ligatus
to ad, tow stupa
toes digitus pedis, toze gradatim solvo
towor turris, towre subvolo
tract tractatus, track't per Festigis sccutus
throne solium, throun jactus
tive lasso, ty her ligato illam

## V

vein rena, vain inanis
viat phiala, viol pandura
W
ware merces, wear tero, were essent
weigh libro, way via
weight pondus, wait expecto, waits spondiaules
exoo proco, woe calamitas
whoop ehodum, hoop vieo
vse usus, use utor, evos oves fceminew
euer aqualis, wre assuetudo
yea ita, ye ros
Sequentes item distingran-
tur, quas autem omnes nou dis-
tingurant.
bruit fama, brute brutum
desert meritum, desart eremus
doun lanugo, down deorsum
foul sordidus, foul volucris
friese pannus rillosus, freez congelo, semper frces liberat
moat fossa, mote atomos
savoury satureia, savoury sapidus vel odoratus

## II.

Voces quæ diversum habent sonum et sensum sed eandem plerumque scripturam; quæ tamen melius hoc modo semper dis-
tinguantur
acorn glans, a com granum
attaek obsideo, attach prehendo
bore ferebam, boar aper
born parturitus, borne latus
bow torqueo, borce arcus
boul globus, bowl patera
convert converto, convert proselytes
form forma, foorm classis.
guest hospes, gest gesta, jest jocu
got adipiscor, jet gagates
gives dat, gives compedes
lead plumbum, lcade duco
light residi, light lux
live viso, alive vivus; lived rixi, long-
lived longævus; lives vivit, lives vitic mow acerris, mowe meto
past preeteritus, paste pastillus
rebèl rebello, rèbbel rebellator
Rome Roma, roam rago
sow sus, sowe suo
sing cano, singe amburo
tear lacryma, teare lacero
tost agitatus, toste panis tostus
wast eras, waste consumo
wild efferatus, wit d volui
jill triental, gils branchire
Exemplorum sequentium priora sonum habent $f$, posteriora, que scribuntur cum $s$ finali, sonum $z$.
Vfe usus, use utor: abzye abusus, abuse abutor
clofe clausus, close claudo
cruse pocillum, eruse predor
diverfe diversi, diver's urinatores
dofe dosis, dose dormito
elfe prætcrea, ells ulnæ
excrefe apologia, excuse excuso
falfe falsus, fulls cadit
hifs sibilo, his suus
loofe remissus, loose solvo
premifes præmissæ, pramise premitto
refife quisquiliæ, refuse abnuo
houfe domus, horese stabulo
moufe mus, mouse mures capto
lorfe pediculus, louse pediculos capto
brafs æs, braze subæro
glafs ritreum, glaze invitreo
grafs gramen, graze pasco
III.

Propria nomina cum communibus, quæ cundem vel affinem habent somum.
Achor, acre juger
Bede, bead corona, bcie tree azedarach
Barbara barberry osyacantha
Brux, brooks rivuli
Cain, cane canna

Diep, deep profundus
Francis mas, Frances fæmina
Joice, joies graudia
Eaton, eaten pastus
James, Jembs parastadcs
Marshal, Martial Martialis
Martin, Marters cypselus
Mede, mead hydromelum
More, moor maurus, palus, more plus
Maurice vel Morrice, morris dance ehironomica saltatio
Nash, gnash strido
Noahs, nose nasus
$N_{y}$, nigh propè
Paut, pall palla, palid mucidus Pilate, pilot nauclerus
Rhode, road via publica, rode equitavi Rome Roma, room spatium Styx flumen infornale, sticks bacilli Thamar, tamer mansuetior Walter, water aqua

## IV.

Voces quæ affinem habent sonum sed diversum sensum et scripturam.

## A

alone solus, a loan vel lone mutuatum advice consilium, advise consulo device inventum, devise comminiscor adieu vale, adoo conatus illey ambulacrum, ally affinis arose resurrexit, arrows sagitte

## B

baren sterilis, baron baro begin incipio, biggin capital batle pinguesco, battel prelium bcholding aspiciens, beholden obligatus bor'd terebratus, boord tabula bos't gibbus, boast glorior bile ulcus, boil coquo
bawble nugæ, bable garrio

## C

candid candidus, candyed conditus saccharo
causeys vix stratæ, causes causæ carrion cadaver, carrying portans champion pugil, champain campus cittern cithara, citron citreum collegue socius, colledg collegium colors, colures coluri
onpies exemplar, coppis nemus curonts uvic corinthiace, currents amnes crown corona, coroner, crowner questor craven pusillanimus, craving rogatus

## D

Dauphin primogenitus regis Gallix, dolphir delphinus
decent docens, descent descensus
doer actor, door ostium

## E

exercise exerceo, exorcise conjuro

## F

fellows socii, fellies apsides
file limo, foil sterno
fonce sepimentum, fenns paludes
find invenio, fiend dæmon
flax linum, flakes flocculi
floor parimentum, flower tios, flour pollen
fold plico, foal'd peperit equa
froiz vel phrase fricta, phrasc phrasis

## G

glistor mico, glyster vel clyster.
garner granarium, gardian gardianus, gardener hortulanus

## H

hence hinc, hens gallinæ home domus, whom quem hollow carus, hallow sauctifico
hose caliga, whose cujus

## I

idol idolum, idle ignavus employ impendo, imply intimo ingenious ingeniosus, ingenuous ingenuus
inure assuesco, in your in vestrî̀
juice succus, joice transtrum

## L

lain positus, lane viculus
latin latinitas, lattin orichalcum
lettice lactuca, lattice transenna
leasour locator, lesser minor
laud laudo, out-law'd proscriptus
lcaf folium, leave libertas

## M

may'st possis, mast malus
medal sicillum fusile, medlc tracto
mines fodine. minds mentes
mole talpa, mold huruus
moan gemo, mox'n messus
mower messor, more plus
melon melo, million 1000000 sive centun myriades
motc atomos, moth tinca
mile miliaria, moil laboro

## N

neigh hinnio, nay non

## P

pallat pallatum, pallet grabatus parasite parasitus, parricide homicidium parson pastor, person persona patent literæ patentes, patine patina, pattens subcalceus
peece frustum, peace pax, pcas pisa
place locus, plaice passer marinus
poplar populus, popzelar popularis potion potio, portion dos
president exempluu, procodent precedens
princes principes, princess princeps
principal priucipalis, principle principium
price pretium, prize preda
prowess virtus, prose prosa
pulls vellit, pulse pulsus

## Q

quean scrapta, queen regina

## R

race progenies, raze oblitero
rice oryza, rise orior, rife origo
wrote scripsi, wrought operatus
raifer suscitator, rafor novacula
royal regalis, rial nobilis rosatus
rough asper, roof palatum tectum

## S

saphire saphirus, safer tutior seam sutura, scheme schema ecase cesso, cess taxo
ceased cessatus, seized apprehensus
serious serius, serous serosus
shire comitatus, shear tondeo, share partio
sighs suspiria, sithes falces messorie
sows sues, souse omasum
sex sexus, sects divisiones
sorel trimus, sorrel acetosa
spies emissarii, spice aromata
saws serre, sauee condimentum
soled solea affixa, sold venditus
sound sanus, swoon lypothimia
sore ulcus, sower sator, sour acidus, sucore juravi
seal sigillum, scel camero
steak offula, stake depignero
symbol -um, cymbal -um
stricter severior, stricture ligamentum

## T

tongs forceps, tongucs linguæ
treatise tractatus, treaties pacta
throw't projice istud, throat jugulum

## V

vale vallis, vail velum
value valor, volley bombardarum simul explosio
vane triton, vain vanus
vitals vitalia, victuals victus

## W

wer't esses, wart verruca
wîle stratagema, wîld indomitus whey serum, way via

## Y

your vester, eucr aqualis yield prebeo, guild gild societas inauro.

Quædam ex his aliter scribuntur, nee in omnibus semper obscrvatur eadem distinctio; scribitur enim gesses pitacia pro jesses; et gesses cum $g$ dura vel guesses conjecturam facit; get jet jeat gagates, et gct cum $g$ durầ acquiro; gelosy jealousie jelosy zelotypia, girk jivk flagello, gclly jelly coagulum, etc. Corants corinths currants uvæ corinthiacæ. Tantâ itaque ruderis mole semotâ; istan scripturam quæ nativam scribendi rationem, ct lingue analogiam maximè adstruit; elegi.

## § 3. Conjectured Pronunciation of Driden, with an Examination of his Rhymes.

Dryden was born in 1631 and died in 1700. The date of his pronunciation, acquired when he was a young man, therefore coincided with the publication of Wallis's grammar, 1653. But as his chief poetical works did not appear till much later, it is possible that he took advantage of the change of pronunciation going on to give greater freedom to his rhymes. Still his own pronunciation must certainly be looked upon as that of Wallis or Willins. As

Wallis is the last of thoso who adrocate the use of (5y) in English to the exclusion of (in), it will be perhaps safest to assume that Dryden agreed with Wilkins and subsequent orthocpists, in saying (iu) and not ( $55^{\circ}$ ). He lived at a time during which long a passed from (ææ) to (ce), but he most probably retained his jouthful habit (ææ) to the last. His use of e, ca could not have inclined more to (ii) than Jones's, perhaps not so much. But we may perhaps assume that all the worls with ea collceted above, p. 86, were generally pronounced with (ii), though in any case of necessity they retained their older sound of (ce). He probably read ai, ei alrajs as (ee) or (ee).

With regard to Dryden's rhymes, the notices on p. 87 shew that, although he allorred himself much liberty, they were not so imperfect as our present pronunciation would lead us to conclude. But as those notes referred to a particular case of ea, it will be conrenient here to reviers the rhymes in one of Dryden's most finished poems. For this purpose I select the first part of Absalom and Achitophel, containing about 1000 lines, written in 1681, just about the time ( 1685 ) that Cooper published his grammar.

1. IT did not act on the following $a$ to labialise it, so that wand land, warrs scars, are perfect rhymes (wrand lend, werz skærz), and in care rear, declar'd barv'd (keexr wær, dekleezerd bærd) we have only a long and short vowel rhyming, as is constantly the case. Embracid taste rhymed perfectly as (embrerest- texest), not according to our present pronunciation.
2. With proclaim rhyme name fame tame, that is, according to Cooper, (-EEM) rhymes to (-EEכM), or, if Te give the older pronumeiation, (-eEm) ihymes to (-xem), which was certainly sufficiently close for Dryden, who may eren have called the first (-xim). There are only three such lines in the whole piece.
3. The rlymes theme dream, please these, beak weak, great repeat, bear heir, are perfect (ee, ce). Again. fears cars, fiar hear are perfect (ii, ii). But fear lear (ii, ee) is imperfect. unless he here took the liberty of giving fear its older sound (feer). In the rlayme spares tears (ree, ii), he may have also taken the liberty to say (teerz). The rhymes care bear, wear care, (were, ee), were sufficiently close for Dryden. Appear rehere (ii, ee) present a decidedly bad rbyme, unless he chose to say (whiir), which is possible, as the pronunciation still exists dialectieally.
4. The group years petitioners, fears pensione s, please images, please griev-
ances, great yet, supreme then, declaim Jerusalem them, must all be considered forms of (ee, e), or long and short rowels rhyming, although at that time years fears were (Jiirz, fiirz). In receive prerogative (ee, i), swcet ft (ii, i), the intention was the same, the wide
(i) being made to do duty as either (e) or (i).
5. Civil devil mas a perfect rhyme ( $i, i$ ) ; but sense prince, pretence prince, (e, i), seem to point to a well-known Irishism, and the close connection of Irish pronunciation with the xrith century leads us to suppose that such words would be generally accepted as rhymes.
6. The $Y$ final seems to have been doubtful in value. From Spenser's time to our own we bare found poets taking the liberty to rlyme it as (ai) or (ii), and as the Irish of the present day are said to pronounce final $y$ as (ii), we may, as usual, presume that this pronunciation was rife in the xtir th century. In the present poom we have $y$ final taken as (ii) in frce liberty, be democracy, decree royatty, me liberty, degree university, be lunaey; and as (ji) in tie posterity, sky nativity, why property, vise enemies, by husbandry, ery theocracy, eye royalty, high extremity, despise indignities, cry tyramay, die posterity, high destiny, I liborty, cry liberty, try anarehy, by company.
7. The following rhymes were pro-
fect (ai, ai) according to a prevalent use in the xvir th century, smiles toils, design join, join coin. Gill gives (woind) for mind, ventus, and poets have always taken the liberty to rhyme it, as Dryden does, with bind, bchind. The rhyme fight height was perfect (oi, ji) according to Miege, but Cooper has (hert), Jones (нeet, нeetth). Clearly there was a diversity of prounciation of which the poet availed himself.
8. The (oou) of the xwith century, when generated by a following $l$ or $w$, was so often considered as (oo) by the orthoepists of the xrinth century, although the usage raries, that we need feel no surprise at the rhymes soul pole, grown throne, own throne, mould bold, overthrow foe, soul control, blow forcgo. But gold sold, gold old, were at that time (guuld, oould ould oold), aud the rhymes belong to the same category as choose depose, poor more $=($ un, 00$)$, (though, as the Expert Orthographist, 1704, says that poor is pronounced as olong, the two last words may have been perfect rhymes to Dryden), or good load, shook broke yoke, look spoke $=(\mathrm{u}, 00)$, of which took flock $=(\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{A})$, would scarcely be deemed a variant. Cooper heard blood, flood as (blud, flud), so that that pronunciation must have been sufficiently prevalent to pase the rhyming of blood with flood, wood, good. And as a wound is still often called a (wound), we need not wonder at finding bound wourd.
9. No distinction was made in rhyme between (eu, iu), if indeed the distinction had not become altogether obsolete. Poets allow (iu, uu) to rhyme, considering the first as (iuu) or (Juu), but the fact that they are now felt not to be genuine rhymes at once discredits the common theory that long $u$ is now (Juu). The first element receires so much stress that it cannot degenerate into (J). Accordingly we find the rhymes anew pursue, Jows accuse, fow true, muse choose, rull'd cool'd.
10. The rhyme remove love was at that time perfect in some mouths as ( $\partial, \partial$ ), but thong tongue, song strung, were probably quite imperfect as ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{a}$ ), although (thoq, toq) may still be occasioually heard, and in some dialects all those words end in (-aq). But sons crown (sou kroun) was altogether unjustifiable at that period.
11. The $r$ seems to have excused many indifferent rhymes. Afford swort, which now rhyme as (efoord soord), then rhymed as (æfuurd suurd), but affords words, mourn'd return't, were (uu, ə), sword lord, court sort, were (uu, A), scorn veturn, born turn, were (A, ) , board abhorr'd, restor'd lord, were ( 00 A). First curs'd was probably perfect as (o o). Art desert was perhaps considered a perfect rhyme. In none Absalom the rowels perhaps agreed as $(00)$, but as the consonants were different, the result is ouly an assonauce.

The following rhymes of Dryden, and other authors, who, having acquired their pronunciation in the xyifth century, must be reckoned in that period for the present purpose, have been taken from the appendix to Walker's Rhyming Dictionary, where they are given as "allowable rhymes," or Prof. Haldeman's Felix Ago (suprà p. 866 note), where they are cited as anomalies. The authors with their dates are as follows:

| Addison, | 1672-1719. | Herrick, | 1591-1674. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Blackmore, | 1650-1729. | Milton, | 1608-1674. |
| Butler, | 1612-1680. | Oldham, | 1653-1683. |
| Cowley, | 1618-1667. | Pbilips, | 1670-1708. |
| Crasham, | d. 1650. | Parnell, | 1679-1717. |
| Creech, | 1659-1700. | Prior, | 1664-1721. |
| Davenant, | 1605-1668. | Roscommo | ,1633-1684. |
| Dryden, | 1631-1700. | Rowe, | 1673-1718. |
| Garth, | 1672-1719. | Waller, | 1605-1687. |
| Granrille, | 1667-1735. | Wycherle | 1640-1715. |

The rhymes are arranged, very nearly, in the same categories as those just considered, and the numbers prefixed to the groups will therefore generally be sufficient to point out their nature. This
review will shew, that it would not be possible to infer identity of rowel sound in apparently rhyming words in the xvir th century.

1. Wan man, Dryden. care war, Garth. hard reward, Parnell. preparcs Mars, Granville. marr'd spar'd, Waller. plac'd last, Dryden, haste last, Waller. made bad, Dryden. This is the common rlyme of a long and short vowel (exe, æ).
2. Complaint elephant, Prior. faint pant, Addison. These diffcr only from proclaim name in having the second rowel (æ) short, instead of (æex) long.
3. They sea, Dryden. defeat great, Garth. great heat, Parnell. neat great, Parnell. please ease images, Tycherley. praise ease, Parnell. train scene, Parnell. steal fail, Parmell. bears shears, Garth-are all practically perfect (ee, ee) or (ee, Ee). State treat, Dryden. errs cares, Prior. retreat gate, Parnell. place peace, Parnell. theme fame, Parmell. are wear, $W y$ -cherley-are only (ee, ære). here share, Garth. years shares, Garth. hear air, Milton-may have been taken as (ee, ææе) and (ec, ее), instead of (ii, ææ) and (ii, ee).
4. Ear, murderer, Dryden. great debt, Dryden. express cease, Dryden. rest feast, Dryden. contemns streams, Dryden. dress'd feast, Dryden. express cease, Dryden. eat regret, Prior. digest feast, Prior. reveal tell, Prior. east, west, Addison. threats beats, Creechare all cases of (ee, e) or long and short rowels rhyming. chin unclean, Dryden, uses (i) for (e). distress place, Garth, ases (ææ) for (ec). compelled field, Dryden. held field, Garth. well steel, Dryden. freed head, Dryden-have (ii, e) for (ee, c).
5. Dress'd fist, Dryden. flesh dish, Dryden. heaven given, Prior-are the usual ( $\mathrm{c}, i$ ).
6. See energy, Roscommon.
7. Defile spoil, Drydes. dechin'd join'd, Dryden. decline disjoin, Garth. join design, Butler. rine join, Couley -were perfect rhymes; and weight flight, Dryden, may be compared with height flight.
8. Doom Rome, Butler. throne gone, Dryden. load abroad, Dryden. food good, Parnell-were probably perfect rhymes, and: stood blood, Butler, Dryden, may have been so, but: floods gods, Dryden. along hung, Dryden-were anomalous, yet evidently not felt as very bad; to these belong: strow'd blood, Dryden. rode blood, Dryden. and : sow plough, Dryden. shew bough, Dryden. inclose brows, Dryden. flow'd vow'd, Dryden. plow low, Philips. stone down, Waller, were perhaps felt as (oo oou) rather than (oo əu), and were therefore not far from (uu, au) in: soon town, Dryden. you allow, Blackmore. now you, Crashaw. pow'r sectre, Garth, so that they connect the former with : grout shut, Dryden. proud blood, Garth, or (eu, $\partial$ ). The rhyme (oo, uu) or (oo, u) is found in: home Rome, Butler. looks provokes, Dryden. gone soon, Dryden. store poor, Dryden. throne moon, Dryden. look roke, Dryden. spoke took, Prior. Rome home, Row. door poor, Parnell. shoals, fools, Garth.
9. No example.
10. In: rock smoke, Dryden, which was really ( $\mathrm{A}, 00$ ), the intention was $(0,00)$, and this led readily to tolerating $(\partial, 00)$ or ( $\partial, \mathrm{uu}$ ) in : home plum, Dryden. home comb gum, Dryden. come home, Herrick, struck oak, Dryden. grave love, Garth. moves loves Waller. come Rome, Dryden. come Rome, Butler. come Rome, Garth. shut foot, Davenant.
11. Heard bard, Garth, was perfect; but curd hoard, Philips. forth worth, Dryden. Where clear, Prior. cord bird, Dryden-show the influence of $r$.
12. The following seem rather to be oversights than intentional anomalies: ground swoon, Dryden. unbought draught, Dryden. form man, Dryden. wish bliss, Dryden. views boughs, Addison. tree by, Oldham. I she, Oldham.

The character of the good parson has been selected as a specimen of the conjectured pronunciation of Dryden, because it can be compared directly with the original of Chaucer, Chapter VII, p. 704, both as to matter and sound, and Dryden's version searcely differs from Chancer's more in the first than in the second, if tho results of the preceding investigation be adopted.
正 $\mathrm{G} u \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{P}: \mathrm{re}^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{s} \mathrm{n}$,$i m \cdot i t æ æ t e d$ fram Tshas'sər ænd enlær•dzhd.
不 pær ish priist wæz af dhe pil-grim treen;
Fn as ful, rev•rend, ænd relidzh•os mæn.
Hiz aiz difiuzd $\cdot æ$ ven•əræbl grææs,And tshær"iti itself• wæz in niz fææs.4
Ritsh wæz Hiz sool, dhoo нiz ætכir• wæz puur;(※z Gad нæd kloorthd niz oon æmbæs'ædər,)Far satsh an erth hiz blest Redii mor boor.:Af siks'ti Jiirz nii siimd; ænd wel meit læst8Tu siks'ti moor, bət dhæt Hii lived tuu fæst;Refoind $\begin{gathered}\text { нimself• tu sool, tu krorb dhe sens, }\end{gathered}$End mææd atmoost $x \sin$ af $æ b$-stinens.Jet нæd нiz æs'pekt nəth•iq af sevee'r,12Bot sətsh $æ$ fææs $æ z$ pram-ist nim sinseer.Nath 'iq rezervd ar sol en wæz tu sii,Bət swiit regæærdz' and pleez $\cdot$ iq sæqk $\cdot$ titii :
Maild wæz нiz æk'sent, ænd niz æk shən frii. ..... 16
With elokwens $i$ nnææt Hiz toq wæz æærmd,Dhoo нærsh dhe pree'sept, Jet dhe pree-tshər tshæærmd.Far, let $\cdot$ iq daun dhe guuld'n tshem fram hәi,Hii driu hiz au diens op 'word tuu dhe skai:20
Ænd aft widh но $0 \cdot l i$ нimz $\boldsymbol{\text { Hii }}$ tshærermd dheer iirz,
( $\mathbb{L}$ miu'zik moor meloo dios dhæn dhe sfeerz).Far Dææ•vid left him, when nii went tu rest,Hiz laiər ; ænd æft•ə nim, нii səq dhe best.24Hii boor Hiz greet komish'ən in Hiz luk,Bət swiit•li tem•pord aA, æud saf $\cdot t$ 'nd asl mii spook.Hii preetsht dhe dzhaiz af hev'n ænd peenz af hel,Ænd wærnd dhe sin $\cdot$ ər with bekəm $\cdot i q$ zeel;28
Bat an eter"nel mer-si lavd tu dwel.Hii tast dhe gas pel rædh•or dhæn dhe las,End foorst himself• tu draiv', bət lovd tu dras.Far fiir bət friizez maindz; bot lov loik Heet,32:Egzæælz dhe sool sabloiu tu siik нәr nææ'tiv seet.
Tu threts dhe stəb•orn sin•or aft $i z$ нæærd:
Ræpt in hiz krəimz, ægeenst dhe starm prepæærd•; Bat when dhe moild or beemz af mer-si plee, ..... 36
Hii melts, æend throouz hiz kəm•bras klook æwee'.Lait-niq ænd than $\cdot d$ dr (hev•nz ærtil•arəi).
Azz нær"bindzhərz bifoor dh- :Aalməi ti floi:
Dhooz bat prokleem• riz stəil, and disæpiir',40Dhe stil'or sound saksiidz', ænd Gad $i z$ dheer.Dhe taidhz hiz pær $i s h$ frii $1 i$ peed, nii tuk,Bot new-er siud, ar karst with bel ænd buk;With pææ'shens beer $i q$ raq, bat afriq noon,44Sins ev'ri mæn iz frii tu luuz biz ooun.
Dhe kon＇tri tshorlz，ækar＂diq tuu dheer koind，
（Huu grodzh dheer diuz，end lov tu bii biusind；）
Dhe les nii sast niz af riqzz，pinsht the moor，
And preezd $\mathfrak{x}$ priist kanten＇ted tu bi puur．
Jet af miz lit•l nii næd sam tu spææ宀，
Tu fiid dhe fem $\cdot i$ sht，æend toll klooth dhe bærer；
Far m．sr＂tifoid uii wæz tu dhæt digrii；
※ puur＂or dhæn nimself• nii wud nat sii．
Triu priists（hii seed），ænd preetsh•rz af dhe word，
Wer oon 1 li stiu $\cdot \boldsymbol{r d z}$ af theer sov＇ren lard；
Noth－iq wæz dhecrz，bot atal dhe pob•lik stoor，
Intros＇ted ritsheez tu reliir• dhe pure；
Huu，shud thee stecl，far trent af miz reliff，
Hii dzhodzhd uimself．ækam＇plis with dhe thiif．
Wroid $\begin{aligned} & \text { ® } \\ & \text { Hiz prer } i s h, ~ n a t ~ k a n t r æ k \cdot t e d ~ k l o o s ~\end{aligned}$
In striits，bot wiir ænd dheer æ stræe．lìq Həus；
Jet stil Hii $¥ æ z ~ æ t ~ н æ n d, ~ w i t h ə u t ~ r e k w e s t ', ~$
To serv dhe sik，tu sok＇or dhe distrest＇，
Temp＇tiq，an fut，æloon，withaut• æfreit，
Dhe dææゥ $\cdot d z h ə r z$ af $x$ dærk tempes‘tiuәs nəit．
：Asl this dhe gud oold mæn perfoormd• æloon＇，
Nar spææ巛d His peenz；far kiu rææt mæd nii noon ；
Nar darst nii trost ænədh $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { with }\end{aligned}$ iz kæær ；
Nar rood himself• tu Poolz，dhe pab•lik feer，
Tu tshæf $\cdot \boldsymbol{r}$ far preferment with hiz guuld，
Wheer bish－zprils and sai nikiurz ær soold；
Bat diu $\cdot l i$ wætsht niz flak boi nait ænd dee，
桃别 fram dhe prou－liq whelf rediimd dhe pree，
IInd Hәq．gri sent dhe wailli faks ærwee．
Dhe proud нii treemd，dhe pen－itent nii tshiird，
Nar tu relink• dhe ritsh afen dor fiird．
Hiz prectsh $i q$ matsh，bat moor niz præk＇tis rast， （ $\mathbb{E}$ liviq ser man af dhe triuths mii tast：）
Far dhis bai riulz seveer＂hiz loif nii skuæærd，
Dhæt $4 a l$ meit sii the dak＇trin whitsh dhee næærd．
Far priists，hii seed，ær pretornz far dhe rest，
（Dhe guuld af hev＇n，huu beer the Gad imprest•）
Bat when the presh os kain iz kept onklecn，
Dhe sar＇recnz im•ædzh iz noo laq．gar sin．
If dhee bii foul，$\Delta n$ mum dhe piip． 1 trost，
Wel niee the bææs＇or bræs kantrokt＇$æ$ rost．
Dhe prel＇ææt far niz но० li loif nii proizd；
Dhe warl $i$ pomp av prel＇resi despoizd．
Miz Sææ• rior kææm nat with $æ$ gat $\cdot d i$ shoo，
Nar wez niz kiq dom af dhe world biloo．

Pææ•shens in wænt, ænd par*orti af maind,
Dheez mærks af tshərtsh ænd tshartsh•men nii desoiud•,
And liv•iq tast, æend doi•讯 left biiнәind $\cdot$
92
Dhe kroun rii woor wæz af dhe point•ed tharn;
In par"pl nii wæz kriu*sifoid, nat barn.
Dhee $\quad$ uu kantend far plææs ænd нәi digrii,
Aær nat miz sonz, bot dhoos af Zeb eedii.
Nat bat rii niu dhe sainz af erth $1 i$ paur
Moit wel biikəm• seent Pii•tarz sak•sesar :
Dhe нoo.li fææ•dhər Hooldz æ dab•l reen :
Dhe prins mee kiip niz pamp-dhe fish'or most bii pleen. 100
Satsh wæz dhe seent, Hun shoon with er•ri grææs, Reflekt iq, Moo zez-ləik, нiz Mææ-karz fææs. Gad sAA Hiz im•ædzh loiv•li wæz eksprest•, And nis ooun work, æz in kreææ'shən blest.
it has not been considered necessary to add the original, as the orthography of the first edition was not readily accessible, and other editions are easily consulted.

As contrasted with the Shaksperian examples pp. 986-996, obscrre, the change of ( $a, a a$ ) into ( $æ, æ æ$ ), the separation of ( 0,00 ) into ( $\mathrm{A}, 00$ ), the entire absence of ( 55 ) and of the guttural ( kh ), the complete change of (ei) into (ai), and (ou) into (ou), with the absence of (ai, au), or rather their absorption into ( $\mathrm{me}, \mathrm{ad}$ ).

As contrasted with our modem pronunciation, observe the existence of (ææ), still heard in Bath and Ireland, in place of (ee, ee'j), the existence of words like (reet seet) r. 32, still heard in Ireland and the provinces, in place of (niit siit), and similarly (sereer sinserfl ) т. 12, these (dheez), the broad (Ee) which has quite given way to (ee, ee'j) except before (. (x), where it does not usually exceed (ee), the pure (iir, oor, uur.) in place of our modern (iix, oo.I, un.x). The use of (A) in place of (0) is probably more theoretical than real; indeed many orthoepists still regard ( $0, A$ ) as identical. The clear ( $æ$ ) after (w), as in (wær), not (war), is noticeable, together with a few special words, as: of (af) still used by elderly speakers, last fast (læst fæst) still often used by refined speakers in the north, golden (guuld $\mathfrak{n}$ ) still heard from elderly speakers, artillery (ærtil:arai) now hardly ever used in educated speech, true (triu), truth (triuth), rule (riul) not unfrequent, at least in intention, provincially, sovereign (sav 'ren) an obsolescent but not quite obsolete promunciation. Paul's (Poolz) is quite lost, and so is worldly (war-li), at least in intention. Of course many peculiarities, as pointed out in the rocabulary, do not occur in this example, such as -ture (-trer). The transitional character of the pronunciation is rery trausparent.

## CHAPTER X.

## Ilfustrations of the Pronunclation of Englisif during the Eighteenth Century.

## § 1. Some English Orthoopists of the Eighteenth Century.

The pronunciation of the xVIII th century is peculiarly interesting as forming the transition to that now in use, and as being the "oldfashioned" habit of speech which we may still hear occasionally from octogenarians. Those who, like the author, can recollect how very old people spoke forty or fifty years ago, will still better understand the indications, unhappily rather indistinct, which are furnished by the numerous orthoepists of the latter half of the xvirith century. In the present section some of those which had not been consulted in Chap. LII. will be noticed, and a specimen of Buchanan's pronunciation will be given. In the next, two American orthoepists will be considered. These are especially interesting, because the pronunciation preserved in New England is older than that of the mother-country.

To Mr. Payne I am indebted for an acquaintance with Lediard's Grammar, which devotes 270 pages to a consideration of English pronunciation and orthography in 1725. As the author had studied Wallis's treatise, and explains the pronunciation by German letters, it secms advisable to give rather a full account of his conclusions.

## T. Lediard's Account of Exglish Pronunciation, 1725.

From: Grammatica Anglicana Critica, oder Versuch zu einer vollkommenen Grammatic der Englischen Sprache, in welcher . . . . eine neue Methode, die so schwer gehaltene Pronunciation in kurtzer Zeit zu erlangen, angezeigt . . . . . wird. . . . . durch Thomas Lediard, N.C.P. \& Philol. Cult. Hamburg, 1725, 8vo. pp. 976, and 82 unnumbered introductory pages of dedication, preface, contents and laudatory German verses!

In the preface he complains of Theod. Arnold, who, in his Neue Engl. Grammatica, Hanover, 1718, endeavours to distinguish the (to Lediard) identical vowel sounds in: fear dear, heap cheap, meal deal, food root, mould shoulder; while be confuses as identities the (to Lediard) distinet rowels in: year peur, door blood, porter border, rash wateh, deal heart, seize their,
foign height, few new, fewel brewer, uinter pint, mother modest, Rome come, good root, foot tooth, round mourn, could mould, youth young, fume tune', burn pull, pulse bull, due spue.

Lediard remarks that " the English pronounce more in the front of the mouth and softer, than the Germans, who rather use the back part of the month, while the French are intermediate. In rapidity the French are fastest, Germans slowest, and English intermediate." The following citations are abridgments, except when the words are between inverted commas, in which case they are full translations; the palacotype and passages in [] are interpretations or interpolations.

## A

I. 1. Long a like German äh or French ai in mais; [that is, (EE), in-
tended for (ææ), because he uses ä without the prolonging $h$, for $a$ short in glad, had, yet this (ææ) is suspicious becausc of Wallis,] as name nähm, shade schähd, face fähs, etc. When unaccented, as short $\ddot{a}$ or $e$, [that is, $(x$, e)], as private preivät, courage kurrädsch (kərerzh), desolate dessolăt. 2. mamy mähni, to quadrate quähdrälte [the $e$ is not meant to be sounded], Mary Mähri, except watcr wahter, [alh should be (ac), but is meant for (AA). Observe many (mææ'ni). Only the principal examples are given.] 3 . hazza hossäh (нә`sææ). 4. plague plähgh. 5. In ange, as change tschä̉hndsch, range räbndsch, angel ändschel. In angelical, orange only as short ä (æ). 6. In -aste $=$ ähst (ææst), as chaste paste, haste, waste.
II. Like German $a$, or rather more lengthened almost like German $a h$, [meant for (AA)], 1. in -all $=-\mathrm{ahl}(-\mathrm{AAl})$, as all, call, wall, small. But MFall in the mail game, and shall have short $\ddot{a}(æ)$. 2. in derivatives as already, walnut wahlnot; but challenge, tschällendsch, tallow, tällo, gallows gällus [possibly (gæles) and not (gællus), but observe not (grelooz), and see 0W below], callous källus. 3. in bald bahld, scalded skahlded. 4. in walk wahlk, talk tahlk, chalk tschahlk, but in these and similar words $l$ is not heard in "rapid " prouunciation. 5. in false, balsom, palsy. 6. in malt, salt, halt, cxalt, but shalt schält. 7. in -war- in one syllable, as war, warm, toward tuwahrd (tuwaA•rd), reward, warn, dwarf; but in warren, warrant with $a$ (A) short. 8. in quart, quarter.
III. These two principal sounds of A are long, and each has its short sound, as short $a ̈ k$ and short $a$ in German, thus : as short $\ddot{a}$ ( $x$ ) in can, man, rash, but as long a (AA) in watch, was, wash [meant for short (A), see V. below]. "The short ia (æ) really approaches short $a$, and has as it were a middle sound between $\ddot{a}$ and $a$, [that is, ( $\mathfrak{x}$ ), lies between ( E ) and ( $a$ ), and the difference is therefore best heard ex usuc or from a native Englishman."
IV. Short $a$ as a short ä ( $\mathfrak{x}$ ). 1. In monosyllables, as glad, had, man, rash, hard härd, march märtsh, branch bräntsch, danee däns [i.e. these words have short ( $\mathfrak{x}$ ), and this generally before $r, n]$. 2. in derivatives German Dschermän, gentleman dschentelmän ; barley bärli, partridge pärtridsch,
chamber tschämber, [compare Moore's rhyme: anber chamber, suprà p. 859], 3 . in arge, -chance. 4, in -al, as general dscheneräl, altar altär. 5. in $a$-, as again ägän (ægæ•n) abroadäbrahd (æbraA•d).
V. Short $a$ is sometimes pronounced as German a, [properly (a), meant for (A) or (o)]. 1. After $q u$, as qualify qualifei, quality qualiti, [here ( $\mathrm{k} w \infty$ ) was certainly also in use, see vocabulary] qualm qualm, quantity, quarrol, squabble, squander. 2. after $w$, as wad, wallow, wan, wand, wander, want, was, wash, wateh, swab, swaddle, swallow, swan. Except, quack, quadrate, quag, quandary* ${ }^{*}$ quash*, squash*, waft*, wag, waggon, wax, which belong to IV., [that is have (æ); observe * words.]

## E

I. Alphabetic name $i$ (ii) has the sound of long German $i$, and is then called $e$ masculine. 1. in $-c$, as $b e$, he, me, she, we, ye jih, except only the, which has short $e$ (e), not to distinguish it from thee, but because it is always atonic. 2. iu $e$ - as Eve, even, evil ihvil, Eden, Egypt, equal ihquäl. 3. before a following vowel, as idea eidihä, Chaldeans, Deity, Mansoleum mosolihnm [probably (moosolii $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ )]. 4. ending a syllable, as in Peter Pihter, etc. 5. in the following monosyllables hcre hier, Mede Mihd, Crete Kriht [compare Jones, 1701, suprà p. 85], a mere, to mote, vereadmiral, scene sihn, scheme skihm, sphere, these dhihs [pronoun]. "To these should be added there, were, whicre, which by bad habit are called dhähr, währ, hwähr." [Lediard was therefore of the school of the Expert Orthographist, suprà p. 88.] 6. in adhere, austere astihr, blaspheme, cohere, complete, concode, concrete, contene, extreme, impode, intereede, intorfere, Niecne, obsecnc absihn, precede, recede, roplete, tevore, scvere, sincere, suporsedc, suprcme. Except extremity, severity, suprcmaey, spherical, discretion, ctc., which hare German $c$ (e).
II. E masculine is pronounced short as German $i$ [probably (i), in Hamburg and North Germany (i) for (i) is common in closed syliables]. 1 . in em-en-, as embarlı imbärck, cncourage inkurredsch, English Inglisch, cijoy indschai, ensue insu. Except cmbers, emblem, embryo, emperour, emphasis, cmpirc, empireal, encomiast, trmity, cnnoble, onter, enthusiasm, entity, tntrails, envoy, enoy and derivatives. 2.

Ending a first syllable, as elect ilect. Also in yes, yesterday, deril, Secil [observe this (Jis, divil, Sivil), but (Jes) occurs below]. 3. iu ee when heard. 4. in the middle of polysyllables, "where it is read quite short, or is almost quite bitten olf," as atheist ähthiist, comiteous kortius, every eriri, piety pciiti, riyhtcous reitius, soverain sorirain.

11I. E feminine, like the French, only before $r$. where it has "an obseure sound almast like German $\ddot{\partial}(\rightsquigarrow)$, or a very short obscure e as in her, revtue," etc.
IV. E neuter as German e [I interpret by (c), bint really ( E ) is common in Germany, as however Lediard uses $\ddot{a}$ confessedly ( E ) for (æ), I think it best to sink ( E ) altogether and use ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e}$ ) in the interpretations], as in cnd, ete. 1. in -en very short, bitten off, and little heard, as open op'n, often aft'n [observe the $t$ ]. 2. Short or elided in eed.
V. [About e mute, -le, -re, genitive -es, cte.]

## I

I. Long $i$ as German ci [(ai), as many in England still pronounce, but we are not to suppose that Lediard would have distinguished (ai, ai, ahi, ai). The examples agree with present usage, except that live-long has $i$ short in Lediurd, and sometimes $i$ long now]. "Firepence is commonly but wrongly called fippens" (fip ns \&). In child, mild, wild, find, bind, behind, kind, grind, blind bleind. But build bild, guild gild, vindlass windläss, IV'melsor; rescind. Use $i$ when $l d$, $n d$ belong to two syllables. Some eall the wind wind, others weind. 4. before $g h$ which is then mute. "The Scots, and some Northerners retain the guttural sound of $g h$, but this is considered a fault and should not be imitated. In sigh, $g h$ is by some pronounced in the throat, but with a sound not unlike English th" [suprà p. 213, note]. Diamond dermond [in two syllables]. 9. Fire feier, ete., but shive sehihr, enshive kaschihr, frontire frantibr [that is cashier (kashii r ), frontier (frantii•r)]. 10. Christ Kreist, climb kleim, indictment indeitment, pint peint, tith teith, writh reith [now (toidh, reidh)].
II. [Short $i$ generally possesses no interest. Notice] long ihe (ii) in Frice [explained as German boy, a kind of baize], gentile or genteel, oblige some
say obleidsch according to rule, pique, shive, futigue fatiegr, intrigue intriegg.
III. A middle sound between French $e$ feminine and German $\ddot{0}$, before $r$ only, as in bird, cte. In sirrah, $i$ is almost pronounced as short $\ddot{a}$ (ser $x$ ), in hithor, thither, arithmetic. mithridate, the $i$ before $t h$ is almost short $e$. The $i$ is quite "swallowed" in business bissness, chariot tscherrot (tsher'at), carriage kärredsch, marriage, medicine medsin, parliament, ordinary ahrdinärri, spanied spännel, venison vensen.

## 0

I. As a "long German o or oh, a Greek $\omega$, or the French au" [probably (00), possibly ( 00 ), certainly not (oou1) ]. 1. ['He usual rule], as alone älohn, ete. Exc. above, dove, glove, love, shove, with "a short $u$, but somewhat obscure, almost as a middle sound between slort 0 and short $u^{\prime \prime}$ [that is, $(0, ~ I)$ as between $(0, u)$.] Also except in atome, come, custome, done, none, [not (noon) but (non)], shone (shon), some. Except when o sounds as long German $u$ or $u \hbar$ (III) in befiove, move, remove, prove, approve, disprove, improve, reprove, Tose, done, Rome, whose; and as a in gone gan (gan). 5. In -dome, -some as (a). 3. Use $o$ in $o$, bo, fro, go, ago, ho, lo, mo, no, pro, so, to, unto, tho altho'; "the words to, zuto scem to belong to the other rule [II.?] ; but as the majority bring them under this rule, I content myself with noting the difference" [this sound of to as (too) or (to) should be noted, it is not uncommon still in America]. Except, to do, tioo, who with long $u$ (un); twopence is tuppens (tarpns). Use olong [aud not the diphthong (ou, au)] in old, bold, etc., and o long, not short, [that is (oo) not (A, o) or (AA)] in ford, hord, sword, divorec, foree, porch, forge, work, form a bench, forlorn, shorn, sworn, torn, worn, forth, fort, port, deport, effort*, export, import*, purport*, support*, transport*, sport, except when the * words are aecented, as by some, on the first syllable.
II. Short o like short German o [properly ( 0 ), or ( 0 ), not ( A ) or ( 0 ), and Lediard clearly means to distinguish the sounds]. 1. at the end of an unaceented syllable, as absolute äbsoluht, 2. in o-, as obey obäh, etc. 3. "In the beginning and middle of the following words, although they have the short accent, and must hence be
excepted from rule III.; obit, occan, omen, once, onion, oral, othcr, toward, towardly, associate." [That is, these words have ( 0 ) or ( 0 ) short, not long, (oo), nor (o), as some have now, and not (A, 3 ), as in the next rule.]
III. Short 0 is pronounced as "a short quick German $a$, not as Mr. Ludwig thinks from the palate, but from the throat, like German $a$, but short and quick " [properly ( $a$ ), meant for (A) or (0)]. 1. on an, ox achs, etc., except amber, ombrage and only. 2. in com-, con-, contra-, cor-, non-, except when com- is followed by $b$ or $f$, as in combat*, combine*, comft, comfort, etc., and also in compact*, company, compass, compassion*, compatible*, compendious*, compile*, complexion*, comply*, compleat*, compliance*, etc., in which 0 is an obscure $u$ (o) [the * words have now (o)]. In other words short $a$ is used, as competent kampetent, complement, comprehend, etc. Conduit kundit (kə ndit). 2. [Rules for obefore two consonants as ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{0}$ )] except the following when $o$ is a short $u(\partial)$, borough, brother, chronicle*, colony*, colour, columbine*, comy, coral*, covenent, covet, dozen, florin*, govern, hony, mony, mother, plover, sloven, smother, [the * words have now (0)] woman " in which $o$ is not so obscurely uttered as in the others," except women wimmen. 5. [Much is passed over as of no interest, hence the numbers of the rules, which are those of the original for convenience of reference, are not always consecutive.] The short $z$ (a) is also heard in affront, among, amongst, attorny, Monday, monger; mongrel, monkcy, pommel [as now].
IV. English o is pronounced as a short obscure $u$ (o). 1. in allom, -som, 2. see exceptions to I. 1. 3. after w, as wolf [this and women seem to belong to the same catcgory, but wood is further on said to have short $u$, so that short «( $u$ ) and short obscure $u(a)$ are sometimes confused by Lediard], won, wonder, word, etc., except wouc wohv, won't wohnt, worn wohrn, wont want [often (wont)], wot wat, womb wnhm. 6. Rather sloort and obscure in the last syllables of almond, bishop, buttock, etc. 7. In front [some say (front) even now], monk, month, son, spongc, gongue [?], yolk [(solk) ?].
Y. English $o$ is a long $u$ or $u$ (uu), 3 , in tomb, womb, whom, and words otherwise excepted.
VI. "Finally English $o$ is pronounced like German $e$, but very short, obscure and almost bitten off." 1. in -on, including -ion, -or, -ot, as bacon bähken or bä̉k'n, button bntt'u, lesson less'n, anchor ank'r, scnator senat'r, faggot fagg "t. 2. in the terminations -dron, fron, -pron, tron, in which ro is pronounced as Cr , but rather quick and obscure, as chaldron tshadern [(tshæ darn)? $]$, saffon saffern [(so farn)?] apion äpern, citron* sittern, patron* pattern [no longer usual in the * words]. The $o$ is almost mute in damoscl dämsel, foulconer fahkner, ordonncnce ordnäns, poysonous, prisoner, reasoning, reekoning, rhetorick, seasonable; and one, once, are wun, wuns (wan, wans).

## U

Rule (a.) Long U is pronounced iuc (iú) after $b, c, f, g, h, j, m, p, s$, but $s \imath$ may sometimes be suh.

Rule (b.) Long U is a long German $u$ or $u h$ (un) after $d, l, i n, r, t$. In gradual, valuabte, annual, mutucal, $u$ may be either in or uh.
I. Long English $u$ is pronounced as iu, $u$, or uk, more or less rapidly according to accent. 1. according to rule (a.) as iu in abuse abjuhs, huge hiohdsch, Junc Dschiuhn, as th in scduce sedubs, exclude, minute minuht, rude, Brate, conclude, obtrude. 2. as is or rather $j u h$ (лuu) in the beginning of words, as union juhnion. 3. except clucat, punish, pumice, study, tuly [?], short and like obscure o (o), in busy bissi, bury berri.
II. English short $u$ has an obscure sound between German $u$ short, and o short (ə) [in the usual places, I only mark a few]. 2. in bulk, bumbast; except where it is a German short $u$ (u), as in bull, bullace, bullet, bullion, bullock, bully, butrush, butwark, bush, bushel, butcher, cushion, full, fulluge, fullcr, fully, pudding, pull, pullct, pully [all as now]. 3. in -um, -us.
III. English short $u$ is very short, obscure, and almost like an obscure $e$, in -ule, -urc, as glandule, globule, macule*, pustule, scheduble, spatube, verulc; advcutwe, benefrcture, censure, conjecture, conjure* magically, disposure, failerc, future, grandure, inclosure, mamufacture, nature, perjurc*, posturc, rapture, scripturc, sculpture, tincturc, torture, venture, verdure, vesture, etc. [all now with (in) except the * words occasionally]. Except rule ${ }^{*}$ and the following in -ure, which follow rule
(a.), abjure, adjure, allure, assure, azurc, conjure entreat, cure, demure, dure, endure, epicure, impure, insure, inure, lure, mature, obscure, procure, pure, sceure, sure * [all now with (iu) except the * words (ruul, shuu..)].
[After thus going through the rowels by the spelling, he procceds to describe their formation ; but as lie has scarcely done more than translate Wallis, apparently ignorant that Wallis's pronunciation was a century older, I feel it useless to cite more than the following remark in an abbreviated form.] "According to Mr. Brightland and others, the English express the sound of French $u$ by their long $u$, and sometimes by $e u$ and $c w$. I cannot agree with this opinion, for although the English perhaps do not give the full sound of German $u$ to their long $u$ after $d, l, n, r, t$, yet their sound certainly approaches to this more closely than to the Freuch $u$, which has induced me to give the German $u$ as its sound, contrary to the opinion of some writers. After other consonants English long $u$ is $i u$, and has nothing in common with French $u$."

## Digraphis.

压, as ith or ie (ii) in : ara ihra, Ceres, Ccesar ssihsär, perincerm, etc.; as $e(\mathrm{e})$ in aquinox, equinos, cestival, cacity, eolibatc, questor, premunire, etc.; as $i$ short, when unaccented, in aquator, aquilibrious, aquinoxial, anignatical.

AI, " as äh or English long a, with a little aftersound of a short $i^{\text {" }}$ [is this from Wallis, suprà p. $124 ?$ it is very suspicious]. 1. in aid ähd, ail, aim, air, etc. 2. in affair affähr, bail, complain, etc. Except as e (e) in again, against, wainscot wennskät ; as short $\ddot{a}(æ)$ in railly rälli, raillery rälleri ; as long e (ee) in raisins rehsins, and as ie (ii) in ehair tshier (tshiir). As a short $e$ or $i$ or a sound between them in the middle or end of words, especially in -ain, as complaisanee kamplisäns (komplissens), curtail körtil (kərtil), captain käptin, chamberlain tshämberlin (tshæ•mberlin), fountain, mountain, plantain, perslain, villain, etc. Afraid is crroncously called äfierd (æfiird).

AU . I. like $a h(\mathrm{AA})$ in audience, rault, etc. ; like $\ddot{h}$ [(ææ), marked long] in aunt ähnt, daughter[P], daunt dähnt, draught drälft, flawt, hamen, jaunt, laugh, santer, taunt, vaunt; like short
a (A, o) in faucet fasset, sausage sassidsch (so sidzh). Some call St. Paul's Church Pohls Tschortsch, but it is a pure corruption of pronunciation among the vulgar [but see suprà $p$. 266]. II. unaccented, like short German $a$, as eausality kasälliti.
$A W$ as AU , but Lewrenee is Larrens.
AY as AI, in Sunday, Monday, etc., the ay is very short, almost like a short $c$ or $i$, as also in holy-day hallide (ho-lide.)

EA. I. The commonest pronunciation of $c a$ is that of German ith or ie (ii), when long and acceuted, als appeal, appease, bead, bequeath, cheap, conceal, dear, decease, cat, cintreat, fcest, feaver, grease, hear, heare, impeaeh, leaf, leaguc, mead, measels, near, pea, peace, queaziness, reap, reason, sea, seuson, teaeh, treason, veal, vear, weak, weapon*, yea*, ycar, zeal, ctc. [see suprà p. 88, observe the * words.] "Most grammars err greatly in the pronunciation of this diphthong, but rather where this first rule applies, than where, in the opinion of some, $c a$ should be pronounced eh (ec). Perhaps, as Mr. Brightland observes, this, with an aftersound of English a, was the old natural pronunciation. I know also that at the present day ea is so pronounced in the north of England. For the usual pure pronunciation of Euglish, however, it is a vitium. . . How Herr König, . . . who had been established for many years as a teacher of languages in London, could have missed it, I cannot understand." Except in bear, bcard*, break, carl*, carly*, grat, pear, steaks, ssear, wear, which are pronounced with long e (ce). [Observe the * words.] Il. Short, or unaccented, like short German e (e), as, already, bread, cleanse, dead, endeavour, feather, head, lead, leather, lineage [?], meadow, plcasure, potsheard, realn, sergeant, steady, tread, trousure, wealth, weather. III. But if short $c a$ is followed by $r$, it is called ai (æ), as ear $n^{*}$ ärn, wrongly pronounced jern (jorn) by some, carnest*, earth*, hearken, heart, hearth, lear 'n*, pearl*, etc. [Observe the * words.]

EAU, is juh (suu) in beauty biuhti, etc., but beax is boh (boo).

EE, generally long, as ih, ie (ii), as in bleed blihd, etc. ; short or unaccented as short $i$ (i) in been* bin, ereck* krick, breceh, sereceh* urel skritsch-aul, sleck*", threc-penee, coffee, committee*, congee*', elcemosinary, flurcc, levee*, pedigree*',

Pharisee*, rarec-show, Saducce*; [Observe the * words, here and in future.]

EI, 1. as ih or ic (ii) in conccit, conceive, deceit, deceive, inveigle* invilggel, leisure*, perceive, rcceit, receive, seize [observe ${ }^{*}$ words] ; 2. as $e h$ (ee), or as some say äh (reie) in deign, eight, feign, freight, heinous, hoir, inveigh, neigh, neighbour, reign, rein, streight straight strait, their, vcin, weigh, weight. 3. as ei (ai) in eilet-hole, height, sleight slight. 4. as short $e$ (e) in either, edher, ncither nedher, foreign farren, heifer. 5. as short $i(i)$ in counterfeit, forfeit, surfeit, seignior.

EO (e) in Geoffrey Dscheffri, jeopardy, leopard, (ii) in people, (AA) in George Dschahrdsch; yeoman jemman or jieman (Je•man, Jii-man).

EU, EW, as long U, namely (iu) or (uu) according to preceding consonant, but in chew*, scw, shew, sewer, by some as $o h(00)$.

EY, accented as (ee) in comey, grcy, obey, prey, parvey, survey, they, whey; as (ai) in eylet-hole, hey-dey*; and as (ii) in key; unaccented as (i) in abbcy äbbi, etc.

EYE, as (ai) in eye.
IE. I. as (ai) in crie, die, drie, fie, fie, lie, pie, tie, trie, vie, etc.; crics, etc.; to allie, certifie, defic, denie, etc.; II. as (ii) in aggrieve, atchieve, belief, believe, chief, cieling, field, grief, grieve, liege, mischicrous (mistshii•vas), piece, relieve, shriek, thief, thieve, wieldy, yield, longer in the verbs in -ieve, than in the substantives in -ief. As short (i) in mischief, orgies, fricnd*. Hendkerchief hänkertcher. III, as short (i) in armie, bollie, etc., better written with $-y$.

IEU, only in foreign words, as (in) in lieu, adiu, as (ii) in monsieur*, and as (if) in lieutenant*.

IEW also as (int), as in view riuh.
OA as (oo) in abroach, etc. ; as ad in broad, abroad, groat graht; as (ææ) in goal, goaler, which [according to Lediard, p. 94, n. 5in] is the right spelling, not guol; as (A) short, in oatmeal * attmihl, and as $e$ (a) in cupboard cobbert.

OE, initial as (ii), as occonomy ; final as (oo), as croe [a crow-bar], doe, foe, roe, sloe, toe, woe; as (uu) in canoe, to coe [to cool, shoe, to woe [to woo].

OI, OY, "are pronounced as aey [possibly ( $a+$ ai), meaning (ai)] in one sound," as aroid, boisterous, choice, cloister, exploit, moist, noise, oister, poise, rejoice, soil; boy baey, coy, destroy, employ, hoboy [hautbois], joy, toy, Troy,
etc. Except as ei (ai) in anoint anneint, appoint äppeint, boil beil, broil breil, coil keil, coin by sonte kuein (kwain), embroil, foil, hoist, join, joint, joiner, jointure, joist, loin, loiter, point, poison, rejoinder, spoil, toilet by some tueilet (twai•let).

00 never at end of a word except too; long as (uu) in aloof, galoon, patucoon, etc.; as (oo) in door, floor, moor mohr ; short as (u) in book, brook, foot, forsooth, good, etc. [as now] ; as short o (ə) in blood, flood sometimes written bloud, flozd. Swoon ssaun [(saun), or (swaun)? which is common now] and its derivatives.

OU. I. long and accented as German au (an), in about, doughty, drught*, plough, a wound *, etc. Except as a or oh ( $\sigma 0$ ) in although, boulster, boult, controul, course, court, courtier, discourse, dough, four, fourth, joul*, joult, mould, mouldy, mourn, moult, moulter', poulterer, poultice, poultry, to pour, recourse, shoulder, slough* a bog, for slow, not quick, has a $w$, sout, souldier, though; and as long a or ah (AA) in fourty, fourticth, cough, trough, bought, brought, nought, ought, sought, thought, wrought; and as long $u$ or $u h$ (uu) in to accoutre, bouge*, cartouch, could, gouge, groupe, rendevous, should, surtout, through, would, you, your, youth. It is now customary to write cou' $d$, shou' $d$, wou'd $d$ and pronounce as cood, shood, and wood with the short aecent. Coup, scoup, soup, troup are now written with oo. II. as an obscure $u$ or middletone between $o$ and $u(\partial), 1$. in adjourn, bloud blood, country, couple, courage, double, enough, floud floor, flourish, journy, nourish, rough, scourge, touch, tough, trouble, young. 2. In -our, -ous as armour, behaviour behähriu', courteous kurtius, dubious duhbius, etc.; except devour divaur, hour aur, flour flaur, our aur, and diftour diflohr, four fuhr, pour pohr. 3. In -mouth as in Dartmouth, etc. In borough, coneourse as short $o$.

OW. I. as au (au) in advow, bow bend, rowol, etc. [as now], except as (oo) in bow areus, bow a cup, jowl, shower [one who shews?, meaning not given, and others as now]. II. as short (o) in arrou, gallows [written (gielos), under A. II. 2, the rest as now]. Knowledge hnalledsch, acknowledge ackhalledsch.

OWE, now generally ou.
UE at end of words, as long U.
UI as (iu) in cuiruss kiuhrass, juice,
pursuit, suit siuht, suitor siutor, ete., " although these last three may be just as correctly pronounced pursuht, suht, suhtor." [that is (suu) as well as (siu)]; as (uu) in bruise, bruit bruht, cruise, fruit, recruit rekruht; as short (i) in build bild, circuit sörkit, conduit kundit, verjuiee rerdsehis.

UOY is pronounced by some aey (ai) and by others incorrectly ey (ai), only found in broy.

UY as (ai) in bray, etc.
YE, used to be written for ie in dye, lye, etc.

## Consonants.

[Of the consonants it is not necessary to give so full an account, but a few words may be noted.]
C. Terdiet verdit, indiet indeit, vietuals vittels. Aucient änschi-ent, species spieschi-es, oeean osche-an. Ticious risschi-us, physieian phisissehien, sufficient suffisschi-ent, precious presschi-us, but society sosseietie. Scone ssien, scepter ssepter, but seeleton sskeleton, sceptiek sskeptick. Draehm dräm, yacht jät (sæet). Schism ssissm.
D. Almond amon, handsome hänsum, friendship frennschip, ribband ribbän, wordly [worldly ?] worlli, hend-maid hänmähd, Wednesday Wensdäh. Come and see kum än sih, go and feteh goh än fetsch, stay and try stäh än trey, etc.
F. In housuife, sherrif, $f$ is soft like $v$, and in of the $f$ is omitted, and $o$ is pronounced as a very rapid $a$ (A). Gemini dschemini.
$\mathrm{G}=(\mathrm{g})$ in gibbous, heterogencous, homogereous. GH initial (g), final, or followed by $t$ is not pronounced, except in cough, ehough, enough, rough, tongh, trough, dranght, where it is $f f(f)$, and sigh*, drought*, height ${ }^{*}$, where it is th. Apothegm äppothem, phlegm* flihm (fliim). Initial $g$ before $n$ sounds as an aspiration or $h$, not like a hard $g$, as gnash* hnaisch not gnäsch, gnat* lnät not guät, graz** hnalı not gnah, gnomon, gnostich. Sce under K. G is hard (g) in impugn, oppugu, repugn. In bagnio, seignior, gn retains the sound of Spanish ñ, Italian gn (nj).

H is not pronomneed in hier, honest, honour, hospital, hastler, hostile, hour, humble, hemour, Humplivey and derivatives, but is pronounced by some in hereditary; herb is called erb by some, and hyerb in one sound, (yhorb ?) by others. II is also not pronounced in John, Ah, Shiloh, Sirrah, etc.

K before $n$ at the begimning of a
word is only aspirated, and spoken as an h ; as knaek huäck, knave hnäve, knife hneif, knee hnie, knot, know, knuekle, etc. "M. Ludwick says that $k$ before $n$ is called $t$; Arnold and others declare that it is pronounced $d$. But any one experienced in English pronunciation must own. that only a pure gentle aspiration is observable, and by no means so hard and unplea. sant a sound as must arise from prefixing $d$ or $t$ to $n$." Did he mean (nhnii) for knee? Compare Cooper, suprì p. 208 and p. 544, n. 2.

L is not pronounced in ealf, half, balk, talk, walk, folk, balm, calm, calve, to halve, etc., almond, chaldron, falcon, falconer, falehion*, malkin*, salmon, salvage*, solder, halfpemy-worth hähpoth (нæerepoth). In could, should, would, $l$ is heard only in sustained pronunciation.

N is not pronounced in $-m n$, in $\operatorname{kil}(n)$, in tene ( 11 ) $t$, gover $(n)$ ment.

PII is $p$ in phlebotomy*, diphthong, triphthoug, and $v$ in nephew, phial vial, Stephen. Phantasm, phantastick, phantasy, are now written with $f$.

QU is $k$ in banquet*, conquer, conqueror, liquor, equipage*, exchequer, masquerade, musquet musket, paraqueto, piquet, piquant, and a few others. C is now written in quoil, quines coines, quoit, quintal, but que remains in einque, opaque, oblique.

IR agrees entirely with German r, except that it is not heard in marsh, marshy, harslets haslete; nor in the first syllable of parlour, partridge. RH in rhapsody, rhetorich, rhime, rhomb, rhume, etc., is pronounced as $r$.

S is hard $=(\mathrm{s})$ in design, resign, cisar, desolate, lysard [lizard], rosin, pleasant, wisit [this is according to a rnle, certainly not now observed, that $s$ after a short accented rowel or diphthong is doubled in pronunciation]. $S$ is hard $=$ (s) in dis-arm, trans-aet, wis-dom. In island, viscount, $s$ is mute and $i=(\mathrm{ai})$. S is hissed, almost like German sch (sh) in sue, suet, suit, sugar, sure, and compounds, but some say ssiu (siu) and others ssuh (suu); and in nauseate, nauseous, Asia, Silesian, enthusiasm*, enthusiast*, effusion, oceasion, hosier, rosier, and their derivatives * Asiatich, cte.; also in Persia, transient, mansion, Russia, passion. "After a shortly accented rowel or diphthong the reduplieation of sch must be observed, especially in the termination sion, as in decision,
provision.". [Did he say (disi•shon) and not (disi'zhon) ?]
T is sounded (sh) in patience, portion, etc., but ( t ) in fustion, mixtion, etc., and as (tsh) in rightcous reitschius, courteous, bounteous, covetous kovatschius, virtuous rörtschins, etc., and is not pronounced in facts fäks, neglects and similar -cts, nor in -ften, -sten, -stle, as ofter ahf'n, soften sahf'n, hasten hähss'n, listcn, castle käss'l, pestle, whistle, bustle, etc., and also in malster, mortgage. [There is 110 mention of -ture, -chure $=$ (tsher, dzher), but the inference from the $u$ rules is that they were called (-tər, -dor), and this is confirmed by gesture dschester, ordure ahrdur. pasture pästur, century ssenturi, given below, p. 1049, in the words of the same sound, etc.]

TH in "rapid speech" is pronounced as $d$ or dd in apothecary*, [t not $d$ below] burthen, fathom*, fother, murther, pother*. Th is "for euphony" pronounced $t$ in $\mathrm{ffth} h^{*}$, sixth, , tucelfth ${ }^{*}$. $T h$ is (th) in with. $T h$ is (dh) in than, that, tho' though, etc. [that is, (thoo), as in Scotch, was unknown to him.] $\quad T h$ is ( $t$ ) in Thames, Thanet*, Theobald*, Thomas, Thomson, etc., in thill, thiller, [till, tiller ?], thyme, and, "according to some," in anthem ${ }^{*}$, apothecary*, [see $t h$ as (d) above], authority*, authorize* [11ot authour:?].
" $\Gamma$, in English called ju consonant, is not merely much softer than $f$, but also than the Germau $v$, but not so soft as the English or German $w$, and is therefore better to be explained as French $v$. German beginners in French find some difficulty with this French $v$. All German grammars which I have seen express English w by German w, without indicating any distinction. But I fiud a sensible difference, namely, that the English $w$ is not so hard, so that 1 am able to regard German $w$ as a middle sound between English $v$ and $w$, and hence, in order to indicate the sound of German w to an Englishman, I would express it in English by veu, and I am certain that he would hit it off better than if I were to write a simple $w$. Pronounce $p$ and allow the breath to escape from the mouth, and you have $f, p h$ or Greek $\phi$. Pronounce $\dot{b}$, and allow the breath to escape through a horizontal slit or split, and you form v. The difference between German and English $v$ consists in the greater
compression of the breath, and its passage through a narrower opening for the German sound, which makes it harder, so that it approaches $f$ more nearly." [He really heard the same sound for German $v$ as for $f$.] "On the contrary, the English in pronouncing their $v$ give the breath greater freedom and compress it less, on allowing it to escape. The Spaniards make such a little difference between their $b$ and $v$ in speaking, that they often use them promiscuously in writing. This sound was unknown in Greek, where $\phi$ most nearly approaches it. The English w is made by allowing the breath to escape by a round hole. The German $w$ seems to be a medium between English $v$ and $w$, the air escaping through a rounder hole than for English $c$, and a flatter hole than for English w." [See the descriptions of (w, bh, v) suprầ p. 513, note 2. I have quoted this passage at length from pp. 149 and 156 of Ledhard, becanse his observations were made at Hamburg, and Lepsius and Brücke ascribe the sound of ( $v$ ) instead of ( $b h$ ) to North German $w$. This careful distinction shews that (bh) was certainly heard in Hamburg in 1725.]

W is not pronounced in answer änser, ankward* ahkerd, huswife housewife hossiv, sweltry ssultri, swoon* ssaun, sword ssohrd, "but in sweer, swore, sworn, some consider it to be distinetly spoken."

In WR the $w$ is "little or scarcely heard, as in wrack, wiench, wrist, wrong, wrung, in which I can only find a soft aspiration (eine sehr gelinde aspiration) before $r$, so that $w$ must not be pronounced, as Herr Ludwick thinks, like wr in the Germ. Wrangel" (bhra:gl).
"WH is pronounced as $h w$, or rather as German $/ u$, but so that the $u$ rapidly yields to the sound of the following vowel, as what huat, when huen, which huidsch [?], who huuh [?], why huey." Except whole, wholesone, whore, in which $w$ is not pronounced.

X is ksch (ksh) in complexion kumplekschion, cuxious ankschius [? ä], ete.
" Y as a consonant at the begiming of a word, or syllable, sounds as German jota. but somewhat softer, and not so guttural as it is heard from some Germans cspecially in Saxony, but alnost like a short German $i$ when it is rapilly pronounced as a separate syllable, as yard, yes, you, jaird, jes, jul, or better
i.ärd, i-es, i-uh, with a very rapid and scarcely perceptible $i$ " [that is ( $J$ ) and not (gh)].

Z is a soft (gelindes) sch [that is (zh)] in brazier, glazier, grazier, ozier.

## Aceent.

[1s some 50 pages are devoted to accent, I shall note all those words in which any peculiarity is observable. He distinguishes a long aecent which he marks it with the grave, but as in a note he says that others use the circumflex $\hat{a}$, employing the grave for his á acute or short accent, 1 shall for conrenience use â for his long, and á for his short aecent. I do not consider it necessary to give his rules. I merely cite the words.]

Hârd [observe that he has always made the vorrel in ar short], lánd, shôrt. Acérb, aêrial, agâiu [where he made the vowel short]. áfter, anchôve, anémone. Balcòny, bôistcrous, bôrder. Carát, cockâll, colóss, coróllary. Dócible. Eâger, éarnest, éaster [?], êilet, éither, émpirick, empiricism, enígm, éssay, éternize, êucharist, éuphony [¢]. Fôuntain. Górgeous. Heteróclite, hûmane. Levîathan, lodemánage. Mâcerate[?], mandùcable, mausolêum [moderu American mausôleum, mûseum], methêglin. Orángery, orchéstre. Phantástry, puilầuty, placîet [?], plebêjan, presbýtery [the accent is not written when it falls on a y] púlmonary, py'romancy. Quádrangle, quadripartite [?]. Rápier, rambôoze, rhétorick, rítual. Sepúlchral, simílitude, *ólemnize, státuary, stomáchick, strangúllion, sy'logism. Tábernacle, tabélion, tantíry, tarpâwlin, thêater. Valedictory, valetûdinary, venénous, vernácular. Volûptuary [a? ? ], vûlnerary.

Ágitate, ávery, ábdicate, ábject, áblative, ive. áccessory, ádjuvate, ádversary, ággrandise, íngravate, alcôve, álcali, anturchy; ándiron, áppanage, archângel, archaûke, cócrcion, cóercive, [?0], collèaguc, cómmissary, cómplaisance, cómplaisant, cóngy, cónsistory, cónstellate, cóntrarily, cóntrarimse, cóntrilry. cóntroversy, cóntumaç, cóntumely, cónversant, cónvoyed, córrigible, córrosive, córrosiveness. Déspicable, déstined, désuctude, dîligence, diligent, dimissory, dîocess, dírectory, dívident disciplinable, díseretive, díssoluble, dístribute, distributive. Édict, édifice,
égress, éligible, émissary, épicene, épicure, épilepsy, érent, évidence, évident, éffort, émpirick, essôin, éxcellency, éxecrable, éxorcism. Fórfeit, fôrecast, fôrccastle, fôredoor, fôrefathers, fôrefinger, etc., forthcóming, forthwith. I'gnominy, illápse, illústrate, ímmanent, incensory, industry, infinite, intricacy, inventory. Míschief, míscreancy. Nefándous, nonéntity, nónage. Objéct $v$. , óbdurate, óbligatory, occúlt, óffertory, ôutlandish. Pérfect, pérspirable, pósthume, préamble, prébend, précedent, précept, précinct, prédicament, préfatory, prémunire, prépuce, présage, préscience, préscript, prêvious, prócess, prócuracy, pródigally, próduct, prófile, prófligate, prógress, próject, prólogue, prótocol, púrsuivant, púrvieu. Récent, récitative, récommence, récreant, récreate, réfectory, rêgency, régicide, régiment, rêgion, régister, rélegate, réliquary, répertory, rétribute. Sécret, sécretary, súblunary, súbterranny, surcéase, surnâme v., súrcingle, súrcoat, súrname n., súspicable. Tráditive, tráverted, transpôrt v. tránsport n. Yiceádmiral, vicecháncellour, viceroy, víscount for vîcecount, víscountess.

Specífick, herôick, satúrnal. Calámity, sanguinity, majórity.

Extravâsate, extrâneous, extrávagance. Rétrograde. Benefáctor, académick, legislâtour.

Debonâir, románce, levánt, bombárd, usquebâugh, octâve, cochenêal, huméct, apogîe, raperîes, intîre, turmôil, memôirs, chamôis, ragôo, scrutòre, tambôur, capúch, cadúke, ridicûle, importûne, noctưrn. Avowêe, grantêe, legatêe, etc.

Stupefáctive, benefáctor, pomînder, legislâtour, nomenclâture, uténsil, chimêra, domésticy, clandéstine, muschêto, doctrînal, agricúlture, bitûmen.

Philáctery, amphithéater, celêbrious, celébrity, comêdian, acadêmian, solémnial, stipéndinus, homogêneal, homogênuous, hymêuial, dyséntery, majêstative, longévity, libídinous, fastídious, concupíscible, chirúrgeon, chirúrgery, epicûrian.
Tesícatory, modíficable. Propítiatory, superérogatory, mónosyllable, réferendary, spíritualize. Cónscionableness, parliamentary.

Conjure conjûre, âugust u. augúst a., ábject n. abjéct, cément u., cónscrve n., cónsult n.. cónvợ n. conrôy r., éssay n. essîy v., frêquent a. frequént v., mámure u. manûre $v$., óvermatch n. overmátch
v., ôutlaw n. outlâw v., rébel n. rebél v., trîumph n. triúmph v.

Worls of same (or different) sound and difierent (or same) spelling. [I cite only some of those that Lediard has written in German letters.]

Aügust ahgost, augúst agost. Buble bawble bahbel, bable bäbbl. Bâth bähdh, bith bäth. Born (natus) bahrn, born (latus) bohrn. Bów (flectere) bau, bôw (arcus) boh. Bréath breth, brêath briedh. Denier (denarins) denihr, denier (negator) deneyer. Géntile (paganus) dschentil, gentile genteel dschentiel. Jób dschab, Jổb dschohb. Léad (plumbum) led, lêad lied. Liver (jecur) livver, lîve (French coin) leiver*. Lives leivs,

- lives livs. Loose (laxus) luhss, loose (perdere) luhs. Lotth lohdh (to have a disgust at), lóth lath (unwilling). Móuse (mus) maus, môtuse r. mauhs, móuth n. mauth, môuth r . maudh, mow (meto) moh, mow (to make a face) mau. Rêad ried, réad red. Sewer (a carrer) ssuer, (a drain) schohr. Singer (who sings) singer, (who singes) sindscher. Sów (sus) ssau, sôw (sero) ssoh. Têar (lacryma) tier, (lacerare) tehr. Tôst (of bread) tohst, tóst (tossed) tasst. $W_{t e k}$ (seven days) wiek, week (wick of a candle) wick.

Alley (street) älli, (friend) älley ; ant änt, cunt ähnt; arrant ärrent, errand erränd; barley bärli, barely bährli. Centaury ssentori, eentury ssenturi* centry sentry sseutri. Chair tschähr and tschier (tshæer, tshiir), ehare tschähr (tsheær). Chear eheer tschier, jeer
dschier. Chains tschähns, chance tschänss, change tschähndsch, chin tschinu, gin dschinu. Decent dess-ssent, also diessent, eleseent des-ssent. Dukie duhk, duck dock. Each ihdsh [!], edge edsch. Fair fähr, fare fähr, fear fihr. Fir för, fur for. Graee gräls, grass gräss, grease grihs. Grote (grotto) gratt, groat gräht[?graht]. Gesture dschestur, jester dschester. Haven hähvn, heaven hevvn. Heardhiehrd (niird), herd herd. Hoar hohr (Hoor), whore hnohr (whoor); hole hohl, whole huolll (whool); holy hohli, wholly huolli (who $\cdot 1 \imath$ ), tholly halli (ha-li). Knave hnähv, nave nähv; knead hnied, need nied; knight hneit, night neit; knot hnat, not natt. Minner männer, mannour (mavor) männor, mamere männur, [theoretic distinctions, all (mænur)]. Message, messuage, both messedsch. Morning mahrning, mourning mohrning. Musele mosskel, muzzle mossel. Order ahrd'r, ordure ahrdur*. Pustor pästor, presture pästur*. Peace, pieee, piehss, peas piehs. Preeêdent (exemplum) pressiedent, president pressident. Quarry quärri, queryquieri. Quean quienn, queen quiehn. Reteh wreteh, buth retsch. Rome, room. Seizin ssiesin, season, ssies'n. Sewer (drain) schoer [schohr, in last list], shore schohr. Só sso, sów (sero) ssoh. Tỉal veyäl, viol veyol, vile veyl. Wales wähls, whales huähls (whæælz). Whieh huitsch, witeh witsch. Wrap hräp, rap räp; wrest hrest, rest rest; wry hrey, rye rey. You ju, ew iuh, yeuo iuh; your jur, ewer iulir. Ie, yea.

As Lediard agrees so much with the Expert Orthographist in respect to E.A, it is interesting to compare the tiwo following extracts, one only 1 year later, and the other about 30 years later. These diversities of opinion and experience are most instructive in shewing, first the overlapping of pronunciations, and secondly the ignorance of orthoepists as to varietics of pronunciation, or their habit of simply discrediting as "vulgar" or "fiulty" all pronunciations with which they are themselves not familiar.
> I. From "An introduction to the English Tongue. By N. Bailey фьдо́лобоз." 8vo. 1726. pp. 96,60. Part 2, p. 15.
> T. What is the proper sound of the diphthong ea?
> L. Ea has the sound of $\hat{u}$ long, in bear, pear, near, swear, wear, etc. [that is, as $a$ in mate, pate, ete.]

> 2d. A short in earl, heart, learn, pearl, seareh [that is, as a in mat, mart, cart].

3d. Ea has the sound of $e$ long in appear, dream, read, sea, seam, speth, veal, [Bailey has not mentioned what the sound of $e$ long is, but as he siys $e$ is sounded like ee in certain words, he, me, we, here, these, even, besom, Ely, Eve, fealty, Peter, we must presume he means (ee), and not (ii)]; but some of this last kind have the a changed with the $e$ final, as compleat [complete], supreain [supreme; this contirms the riew just taken, compare also 5th.]

4th. Ea has the sonnd of $e$ short in brĕast, etc.

5th. Eat has sometimes the sound of ee in bcam, dear, hear, stead, year. [This is therefore the exceptional, not the general pronunciation, compare 3rd.]
II. From a "Narrative of the Journey of an Irish Gentieman through England in the year 1752, p. 156 . Privately printed for Mr. Hy. Huth, 1869." Mr. Furnivall, who kindly furnished me with this extract, remarks that the Additional MS. 27951 in the British Muscum is probably by the same writer, and gives an account of his visits to England in 1758, 1761, and 1772. "By listening to her conversation [that of a lady passenger, in whom "the court lady reigned inevery action"', I gained a better taste for the polite world, except-
ing one point in pronunciation, to wit, that of calling A E, and saying EE for E ; but this was a thing I could not readily reconcile myself to, for I remember when I first went to school my mistress made me begin with my great A. Whetherit was that the letter was bigger in dimensions than its brother rowel E that follows it, I cannot tell; but I am very certain she never made me say E. I was so very defective, or [failed] by too blunt a clipping, that my fair tutoress said she was afraid I would never make any hand on't. She assured me she was not abuve eight or ten months arriving at that perfection, which I am sure would cost me my whole life without making half the progress."

Buchanan has alrcady been frequently referred to. He was much ridiculed by Kenrick, ${ }^{1}$ who is particularly severe on his Scotticisms, and very unnecessarily abuses his method of indicating sounds. Kenrick himself is not too distinct; but as he does not trust entirely to key-words, and cndeavours to indicate sounds by a reference to other languages,-the sounds of which he probably appreciated very indifferently,-it will be best to give extracts from his explanations of the rowels. The conjectured values are inserted in palaeotype, and some passing observations are bracketed. Among these remarks are introduced a few quotations from Granville Sharp. ${ }^{2}$

## Dr. Kenrick's Vowel Sistem, 1773.

1. cur sir her monk blood earth $=(a)$
2. town noun how bough ... =(A1)
3. bull wool wolf push .. ... =(u)
4. pool groupe troop ... ... = (uu)
5. call hawl caul soft oft George cloth $\ldots A_{1} . . . \quad . . \quad$... $=(\mathrm{AA})$
6. new cube duty beauty $=(\mathrm{cu}, \mathrm{yy})$
7. not what gone swan war was $=(\mathrm{A})$
8. no beau foe moan blown roan $=(o \rho)$
9. boy joy toil ... ... ... =(Ai)
10. hard part carre laugh heart $=($ aa $)$
11. and hat crag bar $\cdots \quad \cdots=(a)$
12. bay they weigh fail tale $\ldots=$ (ee)
13. met sweat head bread $\ldots=(e)$
14. meet meat deceit $\ldots \ldots, \ldots=(i i)$
15. fit yes busy women English guilt $\quad . . . \quad . . \quad . . \quad . . \quad=(i)$
16. why nigh I buy join lyre hire $=(a i)$

Add to the above the indistinct sonnd, marked with a cypher thus [o], as practised in the colloquial utterance of the particles $a$ and the, the last syllables of the words ending in cn , le and re; as a garden, the castle, etc., also in the syilable frequently sunk in the middle of words of three syllables, as cevery, memory, favouritc, etc., which are in
${ }^{3}$ William Kenrick, LL.D. A New Dictionary of the English Language; containing not only the Explanation of Words, with their Orthography, Etymology, and Idiomatieal Use in Writina; but likewise their Orthocpia or Pronunciation in Speecri, according to the present Practice of polished Speakers in the Metropolis, which is rendered
obvious at sight in a manner perfectly simple and principally new. Lond. 1773. 4to.
${ }^{2}$ An English Alphabet for the use of Foreigners, wherein the pronunciation of the Yowels or Voice-letters is explained in Twelve Short general Rules with their sereral Exceptions. 1786. Sro. pp. 76.
versification sometimes formally omitted in writing, by the mark of elision.

Under one or other of the numbers composing the above table, are comprehended all the species of distinct articulate sounds contained in the English language. Not that they differ altogether equally in quality; several differing only in time. There are no more than eleven distinet vowel sounds of different qualities in English; ten of the numbers specified in the table being expressed by the long and short modes of uttering our five vowels; as exemplified in the following words:
$\left.\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { A. } \\ \text { E. } \\ \text { I. } \\ \text { O. } \\ \text { U. }\end{array}\right\}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { barr'd } \\ \text { met } \\ \text { hit } \\ \text { not } \\ \text { pull }\end{array}\right\} \underset{=}{\Xi} \underset{=}{\Xi}=\begin{array}{l}\text { bard } \\ \text { mate } \\ \text { heat } \\ \text { naught } \\ \text { pool }\end{array}\right\}$
The other six sounds are either always short as $u$ in cur, or always long as o in note, or double as $i$ or $y$ in hire lyre; $u$ in luve; ow in town and oi in joy: most of which long sounds seem to partake of two qualities, not so equally blended in them all, as to pass without our perceiving the ingredients of the compound. Thus $I$ or $I$ appear to be a commixture of the long $e$ [previously defined as $a$ in mate] and short $i$ [in hit]; U of the long $e[a$ in mate $]$ and short $u$ [in pull]; OW of the short o [iu not] and long $u$ [oo in pool]; and OI most palpably of the short o [in not] and $i$ [in hit].
[Dr. Kenrick's appreciation of diphthongs was evidently very inexact. See numbers $2,6,9,16$, in the following explanatory remarks on the vowels iu preceding table.]

1. [U in cur.] It is always short, and bears a near, if not exaet, resemblance to the sound of the French leur, сœии, if it were contracted in point of time. [It is not to be supposed that the sound was exactly the French ( $\propto$ ) or ( $\partial$ ). It is more probable that Keurick pronounced the French sounds as (o) or (a). G. Sharp says: " 0 has the sound of a short $u$ in af-front, etc. (In the dialects of Laneashire and some other places the $o$ is pronounced according to rule in many of these words) cóv-er . . . . etc., and their compounds, etc., except dis-eóv-er, re-cóv-er, which are pronounced according to rule. . . . . One is pronounced as if spelt von."
2. [OW in town.] The long and broad ow, ou, and $u$, as in tȯun, noun,
cuicumber [the old sound of this word remaining, notwithstanding the change of spelling. Sharp also says: " $U$ is like the English ou in the first syllable of cu-cumber," p. 13.] This sound greatly resembles the barking of a fullmouthed mastiff, and is perhaps so clearly and distinetly pronounced by no nation as by the English and the Low Dutch. The nicer distinguishers in the qualities of vocal sounds cousider it as a compound; but it has sufficient unity, when properly pronounced, to be uttered with a single impulse of the voice, and to pass for a distinct sound or syllable, I consider it only as such.
3. [U in buli.] The French have this sound in fol, sol, trou, clou; the Italians 1 think everywhere in their $u$.
4. [00 in pool.] Nearly as the sound of douze, epouse, pouce, roux, doux, and the plurals, sols, fols, do from sol, fol, troon, etc. [The difference between 3 and 4 is only meant to be one of length. The French generally recoguize the lengthening of the vowel as the mark of the plural. G. Sharp says: "00 is not pronounced so full, but partakes a little of the sound of a short $u$ in blood, flood, foot, good, hoorl, stood, soot, wood and wool. OO has the sound of o long in door and floor. Door and floor are pronounced by the vulgar in the Northern parts of England as they are spelt, for they give the oor, in these words, the same sound that it has in loor, moor, poor,'" and " $O$ is sounded like oo in tomb and womb, (wherein $b$ is silent,) lo-ser, gold, whom, and whose. In the northern parts of England the words gold, who, whom, and whose, are pronounced properly as they are spelt.'.]

5 and 7. [A in eall and 0 in not.] This sound is common in many languages, although the distinction of long and short is preserved in few or none but the English. The French have it exactly in the words ame, pus, las, etc. [This is a distinet recognition of the English habit of pronomeing French. See Sir William Jones's phonetic French, suprà p. 835. lut it dues not follow that the French said anything broader than (a). Mr. Murray, a native of Hawiek, informed me that when he and a friend first studied my Essentials of Phoneties, they were exceedingly puzzled with the distinction I drew between (ail) and (AA). They could find no distinction
at all, and thought it must be fancy on my part. Mr. Murray now reengnizes that he then pronounced (aa) in place of both sounds. Comparc Prof. Blackie's confnsion of (aa, AA), suprà p. 69, n. 3. G. Sharp calls the French a the "English diphthong aw," and sars that $a$ "has a medium sound between $a w$ and the English $a$, in $f a-t h e r$, and the last syllable of pa-pa, mam-ma, and also in han't (for have not), mas-ter and plis-ter; and is like aw in hal-ser (wherein $l$ is mute), false and pal-sy. $A$ has the sound of aw likewise before $l d$ and $l t$, as in bald, cal-dron, al-tar, etc., in all primitive monosyllables ending in $l l$ (except shall and mall, which are pronounced according to rule), as in all, gall, fall, etc., and before $l k$ (wherein $l$ is mute), as balk, stalk, walk, talk, etc., but before $l f, l m, l e e$, and before $n d$ in words derived from the Latin word mando, it is sounded like the Italian a, only somewhat shorter, as in half, calm, salve, command, demand, etc." Here "English a" seenis to mean (ee) and (aa) to be considered intermediate between (ee) and (AA).]
6. [EW in new.] This sound, variously denoted in letters, by $u$, eu, ue, $e w$, and even eau, as in duty, foud, true, neu, beauty, when slowly uttered, is evidently a compound of the long $i$ [en in heat] and short $u$ [ $u$ in pull]; but when pronounced sharp and quick with a single effort of the roice, is no longer a diphthong, but a sufficiently single and uniform syllable; whose quality is distinctly heard in the words above mentioned; as also in the French words du, une, unir, prune, en (yy). [Now here we observe first that the analysis of the diphthongal sound is (iu), instead of (cui), as before, suprà p. 1051 c. 1 , and secondly that the recognition of French 16 does not perhaps imply more than that the diphthong became extremely close (that is, both the elements and the comecting glide very short), and that Dr. Kenrick did not know any better way of pronouncing French $u$. That Dr. Kenrick generally recognized a close and open pronunciation of the diphthongs is evident from his remarks on 2 and 16. Still the cropping up of the French $u$ a century after Wallis had apparently noted it for the last time, is curious and interesting. I hare myself heard it sporadically, not reckoning proxincialisms.]
8. [0 in no.] The French have it in Dôme, os, repos, faûne, maux, faulx. [This indicates a long (oo).]
9. [OY in joy.] This sound approaches the nearest to a practical diphthong of any in our language. . . . A vicions custom prevails, in common conversation, of sinking the first broad sound entirely, or rather of converting both into the sound of $i$ or $y$, No. 16; thus oil, toil, are frequently pronounced cxactly like isle, tile. This is a fault which the Poets are inexcusable for promoting, by making such words rhime to each other. And yet there are some words so written, which, by long use, have almost lost their true sound. Such are boil, join, and many others; which it would now appear affectation to pronounce otherwise than bile, jine. [This is important in reference to rhymes.]

10, 11. [A in hard and and.] The French have it short in alla, race, fasse; long in abattre, grace, age, etc. The Italians have it long in padie, madre, and short in $m a, ~ l a$, allegro, etc. It is somewhat surprising that men of letters, and some of them even residing in the Metropolis, should mistake the simple and genuine application of this sound. "The native sound of A," says Dr. Bayly, "is broad, deep and long, as in all, aw, war, daub; but it hath generally a mixed sound, as in man, Bath, Mury, fair, which are somnded as if written maen, baeth, ete." But who, except flirting females and affected fops, pronounce man and Bath as if they were written maen, baeth, or like Mary, fair, ctc. [Dr. Kenrick would seem therefore to have really pronounced (a) and not ( $\mathfrak{e}$ ), considering the latter sound as effeminate. It is curious to see Gill's Mopseys and Smith's malierculce and rebhanius loquentes (suprà p. 90) cropping up as Kenrick's flirling females and affieted fops. In all ages refinement has apparently led to the same mincing, that is, closer form of vowel sounds, with the tongue more raised, or brought more forward. G. Sharp ought to agree with Keurick, when he says: " $A$ has a short articulation of the English ax, or rather of the Italian a, as in add, bad, lad, mad,' for this seems to preclude (æ). He also says that $e$ is like short a in yellow, known yet, but only as vulgarism.]

12, 13. [AY in bay and E in met.] The short sound is nearly or quite the
same as the French give to their $e$ in the words elle, net, poët, etc. At the same time it is observable they give it to the combinations $c i$ and $a i$ and $o i$, as in pleine, plaine, disoit. The French extend it also nearly as much as the English long sound in the words nès, dez, elefs, parler, fondés, amai, dirai, etc. .... The protracted or long sound of the short $e$ as in met, let, etc., is in fact the slender somnd of the $a$. [This confuses the close and open sounds, and renders it probable that Kenrick pronounced (ee, e), and not (ee,e).] Break is generally sounded like brake, make, take, but few, exeept the natives of Ireland or the provinces, say ate, spake; but eat, speak, agreeably to No. 14. [Here we have a recoginition of the (ee) sound of $e a$ still remaining, and of the occasional (ii) sound of $e a$ in break, suprà p. 89. G. Sharp says that " $a$ is like the French $a i$ in $a n-g e l$, bass, eam-brick, Caim-bridge, dain-ger, and mán-ger:" that are is spoken "as if spelt air," and that in $a-n y, m a-n y$, a "sounds like a short $e$ or foreign $e$."]
14. [EE in meet. This was clearly (ii).]

10ี. [I in fit.] A contraction of the long sound of $e$ or $e e$ in me or mett. This is plain by repeating the words fit and feet, pit and peat, mit and meat; in which the similarity of sound is very perceptible. [This ought to give (i) and not ( $i$ ), yet there is very little donbt that (i) was said, and the distinction not recognized. G. Sharp says that $e$ is like $i$ short in England, pretty, yes and yet.]
16. [ Y in why.] As at present
uttered by the best speakers in the metropolis, it is the sharpest, shrillest, and clearest vowel in our language; altho it has the appearance, when slowly pronounced, of being a compound of the $a$ or $e$ and $i$. I do not know that any other language has it equally clear, single and distinct. I have elsewhere observed that our Scotish linguists say it has the sound usually denoted by awee, but the errour of this is obvious to every Englishman. The French however come near it in the interjection ahi! which they prononnce quickly as one syllable, withont the nasal twang that attends the words $f i n$, vin, and some others, bearing a near resemblance. [Kenrick is very peeuliar about his diphthongs. Many Englishmen, however. as we have seen in the case of Smith (p. 112) and Gill (p. 114), considered long $i$ as a single sound. Kenrick's admissions point to (ai), rather than (æi) as his diphthong. G. Sharp is very peculiar, and would seem to hare two pronunciations, possibly (ei, ai), or thereabouts, as in the present Scotch-English; he says: "There are two ways of sounding the long $i$ and $y$ (though both long), the one a little different from the other, and requiring a little extension of the mouth, as may be seen by comparing the following words, viz. I and aye, high and high-ho, by't (for by it) and bite, sigh'd and side, strive and strife, etc., but this difference, being so nice, is not to be attained but by much practice, neither is it very material. . . I $i$ English, or long, like the Greek $\epsilon \iota$, or something like the Freuch $i$ before $n$ in prince."]

It did not enter into the scheme of cither Buchanan or Kemrick to give specimens of pronunciation in a connected form, but an example of their two systems of pronunciation is furnished by the following transcription of the passage from As you Like it, which was given in Shakspere's conjectured pronunciation on p. 986, and is here rendered according to the best interpretations I can effect of the symbolized pronunciation of each separate word in Buchanan's Vocabulary and Kenrick's Dictionary.

Buchanav, 1766.
:AAl dhii world -z æ stcedzh End and thii men æod wim'in miirll $i$ plee $i \mathrm{izz}$.
Dhee нæу dheer ek-sits ænd dheer en'trinsez,

Kenrick, 1773.
:Aal dhii world-z ee steedzh And asl dhii men and wimen miir li plee•r\%:
Dhee nav dheer egrzits ænd dheer en'transez,

Buchafar.
Nnd wæn mæu in нiz toim pleez mæn• $i$ pæærts,
Hiz ækts bii•iq ser•n cedzh•ez. Ft forst dhii infint
Miu•liq ænd piuk'iq in Hiz nors'ez ææฺтmz,
End dhen dhii whain iq skuul-boi with niz sætsh $\cdot i$
Fend shoin $i q$ marn $i q$ fees, kriip iq laik sneel
thwil iqli tu skuul. End dhen dhii lar ir
SJith iq $^{1}$ laik fər•nis widh æ woo ful bæl- $c \mathrm{c}$
Meed tu Hiz mis'tris oi brou. Dhen, æ səuld Jir
Ful or streendzh oodhz, ænd beerded laik æ pærd,
Dzhel'as or on $\cdot \boldsymbol{i r}$ sad'n ænd kwik in kwær-il
Siik $i q$ dhii bab 1 repiutee shan
Iiv'n in dhii kænənz məuth. Ænd dhen thii dzhost is
In feer round bel $i$ widh guud keep $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ loind,
Widh oiz siviir ænd beerd or fวor $\cdot \mathrm{m} \mathrm{l}$ kot,
Ful of woiz sazz ænd modirn in stinsez,
And soo nii pleez Hiz pæært. Dhii sikst cedzh sluifts
In'tu dhii liin ænd slip• ird pæntæluun',
Widh spekrtiklz on nooz, ænd poutsh on soid,
Hiz sunth ful nooz wel scerd, æ world tuu woid
For niz shrəqk shæqk, ænd niz big mæn-li rois,
Torn $i q$ ægen tu tshoild•ish treb-l, paips
And whis lz in miz səund. Læst siin $\partial \mathrm{v}$ asl,
Dhæt endz dhis streendzh iventful nis'tori
Iz sek ond tshoild $\cdot i$ shnes ænd miir oblǐ•Jən,
Sanz tiith, sanz jiz, sanz teest, sanz erri thiq.

## Kerrick.

And won man in hiz taim pleez man'i paarts
Hiz akts bii iq ser'n cedzh'ez. At forst dhii in fant
Myyling and pyyk•iq in chii nors ez aarmz.
And then thii wain iq skuul-bai with ${ }^{2}$ miz satsh $\cdot \mathrm{el}$
And shain in marrniq fees, kriip-iq leik sneel
anwil iqli too skuul. And then dhii lar:ar
Sai'iq loik for"nas, with a woo fal bal'ad
Meed too riz mis'tris ai-brau. Dhen ee sool'Jor
Fuul ar streendzh oodhz ${ }^{4}$ and biird $\cdot \mathrm{d}^{5}$ laik dhii paard,
Dzhel•əs in han ur, ${ }^{6}$ sad en ænd kwik in kwas'rel,
Siik•iq dhii bab•"l repyytee'shən
Ii'v'n in dhii kan'onz mauth. And dhen dhii dzhas ti ,
In feer raund bel-i with gund keep'n laind,
With aiz seriir and biird ar fasr:mal kat,
Funl ar waiz saiz and mad•orn in'stansez;
And soo nii ${ }^{7}$ pleez hiz paart. Dhii siksth ${ }^{9}$ cedzh shifts
Inta dhii liin and slip•rd pan•taluun,
With spek'tak'lz an nooz aud pautsh an said,
Hiz jysth $\cdot f{ }^{\circ}{ }^{9}$ ноoz, wel seerd, се world tuu waid
Far niz shrəqk shaqk ; and niz big man li rais,
Torn'iq ægen toord ${ }^{10}$ tshaild•ish treb 'l, paips
And wis $t^{\prime} 1 z^{11}$ in miz samnd. Last $\sin$ at asl,
Dhat endz dhis streendzh erent-fol nis‘t.ıri
Iz sek•ond tsheild•ishnes, and miir Abliv-ion, ${ }^{12}$
Sanz tiith, sanz aiz, sanz teest, sanz er.'ri thiq.

## Notes on the Preceding Specimens.

${ }^{1}$ This is the first sound Buchanan gives, but he adds that (sji $i q$ ) is a better promuciation.
${ }^{2}$ Kenrick says (with) or (widh), hence the first must be regarded as the pronunciation he prefers.
${ }^{3}$ Kenrick says (too) or (ta), by the latter possibly meaning (to).
${ }^{4}$ Kenrick gives (ooth) as the singular, but says nothing of the change of the sound of the in the plural. He notes the change in the plural of youth, but not in those of half, wolf.

5 " (Biird), and sometimes, hut I think wrongly (hard)."-Kenrick.
${ }^{6}$ Kenrick marks $h$ mute in honest, but not in honowr. This is probably the misprint of a Roman $H$ for au italic $H$.
: Kenrick has neglected to mark the pronunciation of this word.
${ }^{8}$ Kenrick merely says: "from the adjective," and hence leaves it in doubt whether he said (sikst) or (siksth).
${ }^{9}$ The initial ( $s$ ) is retained, as Kenrick has not marked it mute.
${ }^{10}$ Kenrick writes: "To`ward, To"wards," and adds: "This word is not usually prononnced as one syllable." But then immediately writes "To$w^{8}{ }^{8}$ ands," which should imply one syllable having the vowel in no.
${ }^{11}$ Kenriek writes WH, but as he has nowhere explained what he means by this combination, and as almost all the words heginning with wh are spelled W $H$, where the $H$ indicates that it is silent, it has been so assumed here.

12 "Or (Abliv•Jən)."—Kenrick.

## Joshua Steele's Vowel System, 1775.

Joshua Steele was an ingenious orthoepist, who, with mueh success, endeavoured to write down speech in respect to accent, quantity, emphasis, panse and force. It did not enter into his scheme to represent quality, but in the preface to his work he makes the following remarks, already partially quoted (suprit p. 980, note 1, col. 1), for the recognition of the French $u$ in English, and worth preserving in their connection.

The complete title of the work is: Prosodia Rationalis; or, an Essay towards Establishing the Melody and Measure of Speech, to be expressed and perpetuated by Peculiar Symbols. The second edition amended and enlarged. 4to. pp. xriii. 243. London, 1779. With dedication to Sir John Pringle, Bart., President of the Royal Society, from Joshuc Steele, the author, dated Margaret Street, Cavendish Square, Sept. 25,1775 . It is in the form of remarks on "the musical part of a very curious and ingenious work lately published at Edinburgh, on The Origin and Progress of Language," and correspondence with the author of the same, who is not named, but only called "his l-p." A transeription of some of his examples of writing the melody of speech is given in my paper on Accent and Emphasis, art. 20, n. 1, Philol. Trans. $1873 \cdot 4$, p. 129. The following extract is from the preface of Steele's work, pp. viii-xiii.

The puzzling obscurity relative to the melody and measure of speech, which has hitherto existed between modern critics and aneient grammarians, has been chiefly owing to a want
of terms and characters, sufficient to distinguish clearly the several properties or aceidents belonging to language; such as, aceent, emphasis, quantity, pause, and foree; instead of which five terms, they have generally made use of two only, accent and quantity, with some loose hints concerning pauses, but without any clear and sufticient rules for their use and admeasurement; so that the definitions required for distinguishing between the expressions of force (or loudness) and emphasis, with their several degrees, were worse than lost; their difference being tacitly felt, though not explained or reduced to rule, was the cause of confounding all the rest.

In like manner, there still exist; another defect in literal language of a similar kind; that is, there are in nature, neither more, nor less, than seven vowel sounds, besides diphthongs; for which seven sounds, the prineipal nations in Europe use only five cliaracters (for the $y$ has, with us, no sound distinct from the $i$, and this defect throws the orthograpliy and pronumeiation of the whole iuto uncertainty and confusion.

In order to distinguish what are vowels aud what are not, let this be the definition of a vowel sound; vide. licit, a simple somnd capable of being continued invariably the same for a long time (for example, as long as the breath lasts), without any change of the organs; that is, without any movement of the throat, tongue, lips, or jaws. [Mr. Melville Bell, to whose kindness I am indebted for the knowledge and use of this curious book, apparently had this passage in view when he wrote (Visible Speeeh, p. 71): "A'Vowel' is a syllabic sound moulded by a definite and momentarily fixed, or tense, configuration of the free channel of the mouth, and creating no oral sibilation or friction in its emission. A rowel without a 'fixed ' configuration loses its syllabic effect, and becomes a 'glide '; and a 'glide' with sibilation or friction in the oral channel becomes a 'cousonant.' Consonants, like glides, are merely transitional sounds; but their configurations may be 'held' so as to receire syllabie impulse, in which case a consonant without a vowel has the effect of a syllable. All rowels make syllables." Both definitions miss the distinetive character of vowels, given suprà p. 51 , and now capable of further discrimination, by Donders's and Merkel's recognition of a constant pitch for each rowel which modifies the timbre of the vowel at other pitches.]

But a diphthong sound is made by blending two rowel sounds, by a very quick pronunciation, into one.

So that to try, according to the foregoing definition, to continue a diphthong sound, the roice most commonly changes immediately from the first vowel sound of which the diphthong is composed, by a small movement in some of the organs, to the sound of the vowel which makes the latter part of the said diphthong, the sound of the first vowel being heard only for one instant. For example, to make this experiment on the English sound of $\mathbf{U}$, as in the word use, which is really a diphthong composed of these two English sounds ee and 00 ; the voice begins on the sound ee, but instantly divindles into, and ends in, oo. [Presumably (iu).]

The other English sound of $U$, as in the words vgly, undone, but and gut, is composed of the English sounds AU and 00 ; but they require to be pronounced so extremely short and
close together that, in the endearour to prolong the sound for this experiment, the roice will be in a contimual confused struggle between the two component sounds, without making either of them, or any other sound, distinct; so that the true English sound of this diphthong can never be expressed but by the aid of a short energetic aspiration, something like a short cough, which makes it very difficult to our Sonthern neighbours in Europe. [Here he seems to confuse a diphthong, in which there is a real succession of rowel sounds and a connecting glide (suprà p. 51), with the attempt to pronounce two voweIs simultaneonsly. Hence this sound of u should rather be written ( $A^{*}$ u) with the link (*) p. 11, than (An), which is a diphthong into whieh we hare seen that many orthoepists analyse ow, certainly a very different sound from any value ever given to $u$. Now ( $A^{*}$ ), if we omit the labial character of both rowels, as there is certainly nothing labial in $u$, gives nearly ( $\mathbb{E}^{*}(e)$, which can scareely differ from the sound (a), which lies between them, as may be seen best by the diagrams on p. 14. Hence we must take this sound to be (a), which still exists in very wide use.]

To try the like experiment on the English sound of I or F , as I in the first person, and in the words $\mathrm{My}, \mathrm{BY}$, idle, and fine (both of which letters are the marks of one and the same diphthong sound composed of the English sounds AU and EE), the voice begins on the sound $A v$, and immediately changes to ee, on which it continucs and ends. [Presumably (Ai), as defined also by Sheridan. It is eurions that Steele has altogether omitted to notice oy, and hence escaped falling under the necessity of distinguishing $b y, b o y$, for example. Possibly he would have written (baii, basi), suprà p. 107, I. 4 from bottom of text. He was presumably an Irishman.]

The English sonnd of E, in the words met, let, men, get, is a diphthong composed of the rocal sounds $A$ and $E$ (being the second and third rowels in the following arrangement), and pronounced very short. [Here again his diphthong is nsed for a link, and the result seems meant for ( $\left.\mathrm{a}^{*} e\right)$, and although this should give (ah), it is possible he meant ( E ), see diagrams p. 14. IIe does not seem to have been
aware of the sound of (æ), or at any rate to have confused the sounds (a, æ).]

In order the better to ascertain the tones of the seven rocal sounds, I have ventured to add a few French words in the exemplification; in the pronunciation of which, I hope, I am not mistaken. If I had not thought it absolutely necessary, I would not have
presumed to meddle with any living language but my own; the candid reader will therefore forgive and correct my errors, if I have made any in this place, by substituting such other French syllables as will answer the end proposed. [A palaeotypic interpretation is annexed. We must suppose that his French pronunciation was im. perfect.]

The seven natural vowel sounds may be thus marked and explained to sound
in English as the words.
$\alpha=$ all, small, or, for, knock, lock, occur $=(A, 0)$
$a=$ man, can, cat, rat $=(a)$
$\mathrm{e}=$ may, day, take, nation $=(c c)$
$\mathrm{i}=c \mathrm{vil}$, keen, it, be, iniquity $=$ (ii)
$0=o p e n$, only, broke, hole $=(o o)$
$\omega=$ fool, two, rule, tool, do $=(\mathrm{un})$
$\left.\mathrm{u}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { superfluous, } \\ \text { tune, supreme, } \\ \text { credulity } \ldots \ldots .\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{c}\text { very } \\ \text { rare in } \\ \text { English }\end{array}\right\}=(\mathrm{y})$
in Frencle as the words.
en, grande.
Paris, habit, pardon.
ses, et.
Paris, habit, ris, dit, il.
soldat, côtes, offrir.
ou, vous, jour, jaloux.
du, plus, une.
Diphthong sounds in English.
ai $=\mathrm{I}$, fine, hire, life, ride, $\mathrm{sp} y$, fly (a long sound) $=($ aii $)$
ae $=$ met, let, get, men (a slort sound $)=\left(a^{*} c, E\right)$
iw = you, use, new, due, few (a long somnd) = (iuu) makes the English sound)
$\alpha \omega\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { of } u n \text { or } u g \text {, and is pro- } \\ \text { nounced extremely short }\end{array}\right\}$
$\left.\begin{array}{c}u n \mathrm{kind}, u n d o n e, \text { begun } \\ u g \mathrm{gly}, \mathrm{b} u \mathrm{t}, \text { shut, gut }\end{array}\right\}=\left\langle\mathrm{A}^{*} \mathrm{u}, ~ उ\right)$
$o \omega=$ how, bough, sow, hour, gown, town (this diphthong is sounded long, dwelling chiefly on the latter vowel) $=($ Auu $)$.

The letters and sounds, which in modern languages pass under the names of diphthongs, are of such different kinds, that they cannot properly be known by any definition I have seen : for, according to my sense, the greatest part of then are not diphthongs. Therefore, that I may not be misunderstood, I will define a proper diphthong to be made in specel, by the blending of two vorvel sounds so intimately into one, that the ear shall hardly be able to distinguish more than one uniform sound; though, if produced for a longer time than usual, it will be found to continue in a sound different from that on which it began, or from its diphthong sound. [This shews a perfeet confusion between linking two sounds into one, and gliding on from one sound on to another.]

And therefore the vowels, which are joined to make diphthongs in English, are pronounced much shorter, when so joined, than as single rowels; for if the rowel sounds, of which they are
composed, especially the initials, are pronounced so as to be easily and distinctly heard separately, they cease to be diphthongs, and become distinct syllables.

Though the grammarians have divided the rowels into three classes; long, short, and doubtful; I am of opinion, that every one of the seven has both a longer and shorter sound : as $\alpha$ is long in all, and short in lock and $o c($ lack and $\alpha c)=(A A, A$ ?).
A is long in arm, and short in cat= (aa, a?).
E is long in may and make, and short in nation=(ee, e?).
I is long in be, and short in it $=(\mathrm{ii}, \mathrm{i}$ ? $)$. $o$ is longer in hole than in open [often (op•и) dialectally]; long in eorrode, short in corrosive [which Lediard accents córrosive suprà p. 1048, c. 1, 1. 5 from bottom. $]=(o o, o$ ? $)$.
$\omega$ is long in fool, short (by comparison) in foolish $=(\mathrm{uu}, \mathrm{n} ?$ ).
u is long in tune and plus, and short in super and $d u=(i u, y ?)$.

But the shortest sounds of $0, \omega$ ，and $u$ are long in comparison with the short sounds of the four first vowels［that is， are medial ！$]$ ．

The French，the Scotch，and the Welsh，use all these vowel sounds in their common pronunciation；but the English seldom or never sound the $\mathbf{u}$ in the French tone（which I have set down as the last in the foregoing list， and which，I believe，was the sound of the Greck $\dot{v} \pi \sigma \omega \lambda \partial \nu)$ ，except in the more refined tone of the court，where it begins to obtain in a few words．

I have been toid the most correct Italians use only five vowel sounds， omitting the first and serenth，or the $\alpha$ and the $\tau$ ．Perhaps the Romans did the same：for it appears by the words which they borrowed from the Greeks in latter times，that they were at a loss
how to write the $\eta$ and the $v$ in Latin letters．

As the Greeks had all the seven marks，it is to be presumed that at some period they must have used them to express so many different sounds． But haring had the opportunity of conversing with a learned modern Greek，I find，though they still use all the seven marks，they are very far from making the distinction among their sounds which nature admits of，and which a perfect language requires：but all nations are continually changing both their language and their pro－ nunciation；tho that people，who have marks for seven vowels，which are ac－ cording to nature the competent number， are the least excusable in suffering any change，whereby the proper distinction is lost．

## § 2．Two American Orthoepists of the Eighteenth Century．

## i．Bexjamin Franklin＇s Phonetic Writing， 1768.

Dr．Franklin＇s scheme of phonetic writing（suprà p．48），though hasty and unreviscd，is too interesting to be omitted．His corre－ spondence with Miss Stephenson contains a common sense，practical view of the necessity and usefulness of some phonetic scheme，and gives short convincing answers to the objections usually urged against it．The spelling would have required careful reconsidera－ tion，which it evidently never receired．But in the following transcript it is followed exactly．As a specimen of the English pronunciation of the earlicr part，although written after the middle， of the xriut th century，it is of sufficient importance to justify the insertion of the paper at length in this place．The symbols are， as usual，replaced by their palacotypic equivalents，and for con－ renience of printing the following table given by Franklin is some－ what differently arranged，although the matter is unaltered．

Table of the Reformed Alphahet．

Names．

## Mrannor of Pronouncing the Sounds．

（o）old．The first vowel naturally； and deepest sound；requires only to open the mouth and breathe through it．
（A）John，folly；awl，ball．The next requiring the mouth opened a little nore，or hollower．
（x）man，ean．Thenext，alittle more．
（e）men，lend，name，lanc．The next requires the tongue to be a little more clevated．
（i）did，sin，deed，seen．The next still more．
（u）tool，foul，rule．The next re－

Names．Mamer of Pronouncing the Sounds．
quires the lips to be gathered up，learing a small opening．
（ə）um，un；as in umbrage，unto， etc．，and as in $c r$ ．The next a very short vowel，the sonnd of which we shonld express in our present letters，thus $u h_{1}$ ；a short， and not rery strong aspiration．
（Iгә）hunter，happy，high．A stronger or more forcible aspiration．
（gi）give，gather．The first con－ sonast；being formed by the root of the tongue；this is the present hard $g$ ．
(ki) keep, kiek. A kindred sound; a little more acute; to be used instead of hard $c$.
(ish) [sh] ship, wish. A new letter wanted in our language; our $s h$, separately taken, not being the proper elements of the sound.
(iq) $[\mathrm{ng}] \mathrm{i}$ ing, repeating, among. A new letter wanted for the same reason. These are formed back in the mouth.
(en) end. Formed more forward in the mouth; the tip of the tongue to the roof of the mouth.
(r) art. The same; the tip of the tongue a little loose or separate from the roof of the mouth, and vibrating.
(ti) tecth. The tip of the tongue more forward; tonching, and then leaving, the root.
(di) deed. The same; touching a little fuller.
(el) ell, tcll. The same; touching
just about the gums of the upper tecth.
(es) essenee. This sound is formed by the breath passing between the moist end of the tongue and the upper teeth.
(ez) [es] wages. The same; a little denser and duller.
(eth) [th] think. The tongue under, and a little behind, the upper teeth; tonching them, but so as to let the breath pass between.
(edh) [dh] thy. The same; a little fuller.
(ef) effect. Formed by the lower lip against the upper teeth.
(ev) ever. The same; fuller and duller.
(b) bees. The lips full together, aud opened as the air passes out.
(pi) peep. The same; but a thimner somnd.
(em) ember. The closing of the lips, while the $e$ is soundmg.

Remarks [by Franklin, on the above table].
(о) to (нә). It is endearoured to give the alphabet a more natural order; beginning first with the simple sounds formed by the breath, with none or very little help of tongue, teeth, and lips, and produced chiefly in the windpipe.
(g, k). Then coming forward to those, formed by the roof of the tongue next to the windpipe.
( $r, n, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ). Then to those, formed more forward, by the forepart of the tongue against the roof of the month.
$(\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z})$. 'Then those, formed still more forward in the mouth, by the tip of the tongue applied first to the roots of the upper teeth.
(th, dh). Then to those, formed by the tip of the tongue applied to the ends or edges of the upper teeth.
( $f, \mathrm{v}$ ). Then to those, formed still more forward, by the under lip applied to the upper teeth.
(b, p). Then to those, formed yet more forward, by the upper and under lip opening to let out the sounding breath.
(m). And lastly, ending with the shutting up of the mouth, or closing the lips while any vowel is sounding. In this alphabet $c$ is omitted as unnecessary; $\hat{k}$ supplying its hard sound, and $s$ the soft; $k$ also supplies well the place of $z$ [evidently a misprint for $q$ ],
and with an $s$ added in the place of $x$ : $q$ and $x$ are therefore omitted. The vowel $u$ being sounded as oo (uu) makes the $w$ unnecessary. The $y$, where used simply, is supplied by $i$, and where as a dipthong [so spelled in the original], by two rowels: that letter is therefore omitted as useless. The jod $j$ is also omitted, its sound being supplied by the new letter (sh) ish, whieh serves other purposes, assisting in the formation of other sounds;--thas the (sh) with a (d) before it gives the sound of the jod $j$ and soft $g$ as in "James, Jamuary, giant, gentle" (dsheems, dshæmueri, dshaient, dshentel) ; with a ( $t$ ) before it, it gives the sound of ch, as in "cherry, chip" (tsheri, tship); and with a (z) before it, the French sound of the $\mathrm{jod} j$, as in "jamais" (zshæme). [Dr. Franklin's knomledge of the French sonnd must have been very inexact.] Thus the $g$ has no longer two different sounds, which oceasioned confusion, but is, as every letter onght to be, confined to one. The same is to be observed in all the letters, vowels, and consonants, that wherever they are met with, or in whatever company, their sound is always the same. It is also intended, that there be no superfluous letters used in spelling; i.e. no lotter that is not somided; and this alphabet, by six now letters [meaning
(A, $\partial$, sh, q, th, dll $)$ ], provides that there be no distinct sounds in the language, without lethers to express them. As to the difference between short and long vowels, it is naturally expressed by a single vowel where short, a donble one where long; as for "mend" write (mend), but for "remain'l" write (remeen'd) ; for "did" write (did), but for "deed" write (diid), etc.

What in our common alphabet is supposed the third vowel, $i$, as we sound it, is as a dipthong, cousisting of two of our rowels joined; ( $\partial$ ) as sounded
in "unto" and (i) in its true sound. Any one will be sensible of this who sounds those two vowels (o i) quick after each ather; the sound begins (0) and ends (ii). The true sound of the (i) is that we now give to $e$ in the words "deed, keep" [Here the editor observes: "The copy, from which this is printed, ends in the same abrupt way with the above, followed by a considerable blank space; so that more perhaps was intended to be added by our author. B. V."]

## Examples.

> So ${ }^{1}$ Huen som Endshel, bəi divəin kamænd, Uidh roiziq tempests sheeks e gilti Lrend; (Sotsh æz ar leet or peel Britæniæ pæst,) Kæelm and siriin mi draivs dhi fiuriəs blæst; And, pliiz'd dh' almeitis ardors tu porfarm, Roids in dhi Huorluind and dzirekts dhi Starm.
${ }^{1}$ Dr. Franklin is not consistent in marking the long and short vowels. Ilis peculiarities and errors are here all reproduced. Sir William Jones (Works, 4 to. ed. 1799, i. 205), after giving his analysis of sound for the purpose of transliterating the Indian languages, adds: "Agrecably to the preceding analysis of letters, if I were to adopt a new mode of English orthography, I should write Addison's description of the angel in the following manner, distinguishing the simple breathing or first element, which we camot invariably omit, by a perpendicular line above our first or second vowel :
Sò hwen sm énjel, bai dirain cămánd,
Widh raisin tempests shées a gilti land,
Sch az ăr lét ór pél Britanya pást,
Cálm and sirín hi drairz thi fyúryas blást,
And plíz'd dh' ālmaitiz ārderz tu perfórm,
Raids in thi hwerlwind and dairects dhi stirm.

This mode of writing poetry would be the touchstone of bad rhymes, which the eye as well as the ear would instantly detect; as in the first couplet of this description, and even in the last, according to the common pronunciation of perform."

The following is probably the meaning to be attached to Jones's symbols, leaving his errors as they stand, but supplying the (0) occasionally omitted in accordance with Sanscrit custom, and not inserting accents. It is very possible that thongh he wrote signs equivalent to ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}$, ee, r), he actually said (æ, i, ee, x).
(Soo Hwen som eendzhel, bai divain kamaand,
Widh raisiq tempests sheeks a gilti land,
Sotsh az ar leet oor peel Britansa paast,
Kaalm and siriin mi draivz dhi frumuas blaast,
And, plizzd dh- a.llmaitiz anrderz tu perfoorm,
Raids in the IWwerlwind and dairekts dhi staarm.)

So dhi piur limpid striim, Huen faul with steens
ar rashiq Tarents æend disendiq Reens,
Uərks itself kliir ; ænd æz it rəns rifoins,
Til boi digriis, dhe flotiq mirər shoins,
Riflekts iitsh flaur dhret an its bardor groz,
And enu ner'n in its feer Bozom shoz.

## Coriespondence betifeen Miss Stephenson and Dr. Franklin.

## Diir Sər,

Kensiqtan, Septembər 26, 1768.
әі нæт trænskrob'd iur ælfæbet, \&c., нuitsh əi think məit bi Ar sərris tu dhoz, $\quad$ нu uish tæ ækuəir æn ækiuret pronənsieshon, if dhæt kuld bi fiks'd ; bat əi si meni inkanviiniensis, æz uel oz difikoltis, dhat uuld ' ætend thi briqiq iur letors and arthagrefi intu kamon iæs. aal aur etimalodshiz uuld be last, kansikuentli ui kuld nat asərteen dhi miiniq ar meni uərds; dhi distinkshon tu, bituiin uərds av diforent miiniq æend similær saund uuld bi distrazid, æend asl dhi buks ælredi riten uuld bi ${ }^{2}$ iusles, onles ui liviq raiters pablish nu iidishans. In shart əi biliiv ui mast let piipil spel an in dheer old ue, æend (æz ui foind it iisiiest) du dhi scem Aurselves. With ease and with sincerity $I$ can, in the old way, subscribe myself, Dear Sir, Your faithful and affectionate Servant, Dr. Fianklin.
III. S.

## Answer to Miss S * * * *

## Diir Mædæm, ${ }^{3}$

dhi sbdshekshon in meek to rektifaiiq aur ælfæbet, $d h æ t$ it uil bi ætended widh inkanviniensiz ænd difikəltiz, iz e næturæl uən; far it aluæz akərz нuen eni refar-

Probably the difference between Franklin and Jones was more apparent than real. In perform, however, Frauklin evidently adopted the pronunciation which Jones disliked. On Jones's sensitiveness to rhyme see suprà p. 866, note, where a line has been unfortunately omitted. For the sentence begiuning on 1.7, col. 2 , of that note, read: "The Seven Fountains of 542 lines has only afford-Lord. The Palace of Fortune of 506 lines has only shone-sun, and stood-blood."

The passage selected as an example by both Frauklin and Jones is from Addison's Campaign, lines 287-291; and is parodied thus in Pope's Dunciad, 3, 261-264:
Immortal lich ! how calm he sits at ease 'Hid snows of paper, and fierce hail of pease; And proud his Mistress' orders to perform Rides in the whirlwind and directs the storm.
${ }^{1}$ Probably meant for (wuld). It is one of the inconveniences of the use of (i, u) for ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ), together with (ii, uu)
for the long rowels, as in Franklin's scheme, that ye, woo (Jii, wuu) must be written (ii, uu) or (iii, uuu). The latter form I have never seen employed. Hence there is always an ambiguity in such words.

2 The words (distrazid, ænd at dhi buks elredi riten uuld bi) are omitted in the copy of this letter in Franklin's works, vol. 2, p. 361, and are here restored from the quotations of Miss Stephenson's words in Dr. Franklin's reply, pp. 364-5, so that they contain his spelling rather than hers.
${ }^{3}$ There are several letters preserved in Franklin's works addressed to Miss Stephenson or Stevensou, One dated 17th May, 1760, begins: "I send my good girl the books I mentioned to her last night," and gives advice in reading, shewing that she was then very young, but that Franklin had been in the habit of talking with her about literature and language.
meshon iz propozed; muedhor in rilidshon, govemment, laz, and iven duun æz lo æz rods æud muil kæridshiz. dhi tru kuestshon dhen, is nat Huedhuər dhæer uil bi no difikoltiz ar inkanviniensiz, bat muedher dhi difikoltiz mê nit bi sormsunted; and nuedheor ${ }^{1}$ dhi kanriniensiz uil mat, an thi muol, bi grêtor than dhi inkanriniensiz. In this kes, dhi difikoltiz er onli in dhi biginiq ar dhi preektis: muen dhê er uons ororkom, dhi adrantedshez er læstiq.To oidhor iu ar mi, mu spel ucl in dhi prezent mod, ai imædshin dhi difikolti as tshendiq ${ }^{2}$ dhat mod far dhi nu, iz nat so grêt, bat dhæe ui moit porfektli git ovor it in a uiiks roitiq. Ez to dhoz hu du nat spel uel, if dhi tu difikaltiz er kompêrd, viz., dhæt av titshiq dhem tru speliq in dhi prezent mod, æend dhæet as titshiq dhem dhi nu ælfæbet ænd dhi mespeliq ækardiq to it, oi æm kinfident dhæe dhi læotr uuld bi byi ${ }^{3}$ fær dhi liist. thê nætrreli fal into dhi nu method ælreadi, æz mətsh æz dhi imperfekshon av dher ælffebet uil ædmit ar; dhêr prezent bæd speliq iz onli bæd, bikaz kantreri to dhi prezent bæd ruls : ondar dhi un ruls it unld bi gud.dhi difikalti as lorniq to spel uel in thi old uê iz so grêt, dhæet fiu ætêu it ; thauzænds æend thauzænds roitig an to old edsh, uidhaut erer biiq ebil to ækuair it. 'Tiz, bissidz, e difikolti kantinueli inkriisiq, æz dhi saund græeluæeli veriz mor ænd mor fram dhi speliq; ænd to farenarz ${ }^{4}$ it mêks dhi larniq to pronans aur læquedsh, æz riten in aur buks, relmast impasibil.

Naur æz to dhi inkanriniensiz iu menshon.- dhi forst iz, dhrt asl aur etimalodshiz uuld bi last, kansikuentli ui kuld nat asarteen dhi miiniq Av meni uərds.-etimalodshiz er æt present reri onsərteen; bot satsch æez dhê er, dhi old buks unld stil prizers dhem, æend etimolodshiz ${ }^{5}$ uuld dhêr foind dhem. Uards in thi kors at trim, ${ }^{6}$ tshendsh dher miiniqs, æz uel æz ther speliq ænd pronənsieshon; æud ui du nat luk to etimalodshi far dher prezent miiniqs. If oi shuld kal è mæn e Neev ænd e Vilen, ni uuld Hærdli bi sætisfoil with² mai teliq nim, dhæt uən ar dhi uords oridshinæli signifoid onli e læd ar sorvent; æud dhi odhər, æn ondər plaumæn, ar dhi inhæbitænt as e riledsh. It iz fram prezent insedsh onli, dhi miiniq av uards iz to bi detormined.
${ }^{1}$ This word scems to have exercised the Doctor very much, this is the third orthography in a few lines. He meant (whedh $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$ ) of course.
${ }^{2}$ Meaning (tshcendzl-iq) changing.
${ }^{3}$ Franklin's character for ( 0 ) is $\%$, and consequently his printer easily confuses it with $y$; (byi) is an crror for (bai). Several of the errors here cupied may be duc to his printer, and cannot be corrected by the original MS.

4 " Dr. Frinklin used to lay some little stress on this cireumstance, when he ocensionally spoke on the subject. 'A dictionary, formed on this model, would have been eerriceable to him, he
said, cren as an Amcrican;' because, from the want of public examples of pronunciation in his own country, it was often diffieult to learn the proper sound of certain words, which occurred rery frequently in our Euglish writings, and which of course every American very well understood as to their meaning. B. V.'" -Note to Dr. F.'s Works, vol. 2, p. 363.
${ }^{5}$ Meaning, probably etymologists (etimalodshists) in his spelling.
${ }^{6}$ Mcaning (taim) time. See abore, note 3 .

7 The (w) and the (th) are both slips. He meant (uidh) in his spelling.

Iur sekənd inkınviniens iz, dhæet dhi distinkshon bituiin uərds ar difərent miiniq and similær sanud unld bi distrapid.-dhet distinkshon iz alreadi distrajid in pronaunsiq dhem; ænd ui rilai an dhi sens relon av dhi sentens to æsərteen, Huitsh av dhi sereræl urds, similær in saund, ui intend. If this iz sofishent in dhi repiditi av diskors, it uil bi mutsh mor so in riten sentenses, muitsh mê bi red lezshurli, ænd ætended to mor pærtikulærli in kes av difikalti, dhæn ui kæn æetend to e pæst sentens, нuวil e spikər iz нәryiiq ${ }^{1}$ әs ælıq uith nu uəus.

Iur thrord inkanviniens iz, dhæt anl dhi buks ælredi riten uuld bi insles.-dhis ink.nviniens uuld onli kom an græduæli, in e kors av edshes. Iu ænd əi, æud ədhər nau liviq ridors, unld merdli farget thi ius av dhem. Piipil uuld long lorn to riid dhi old raitiq, dho dhê prektist dhi nu.- And dhi inksnviniens is nat greater, dhæn пnæt nes æktuæli нæpend in æ similær kes, in Iteli. Farmerli its inhæbitents anl spok and rot Lretin: $æ z$ dhi læquedsh tshendshd, dhi speliq falo'd it. It iz tru dhæet ret prezent, e miir onlærn'd Italien knst ${ }^{2}$ riid dhi Læetin buks; dho the er stil red rend ondorstud boi meni. Bat, if dhi spelif med nerar bin tshendshed, mi uuld man нет faund it matsh mor difikglt to riid and ryit ${ }^{3}$ miz on laquædsh; far riten mords unld пеv нæd no rilêshon to s.unds, the uuld onli нег stud far thiqs; so dhæe if hi uuld ekspres in raitiq thi әidia нi нez, пuen mi sannds dhi uərd Vescoro, mi most iuz dhi leterz Episcopus. -In shart, Huæterer dhi difikaltiz ænd inkanviniensiz nau er, dhe uil bi mor iizili sormsunted nau, dhau пiræftər; æ口灬 som tain ar adhər, it məst bi dən; ar aur raitiq uil bikam dhi seem uidh dhi Tshoiniiz, æz to dhi difikalti av lorniq and iuziq it. End it uudd ælredi пет bin sətsh, if ui нæd kantinud dhi Saksən speliq and rəitiq, iuzed boi our forfadhers. əi æm, məi diir frind, iurs æfekshonetli, B. Franklin.

Ləndən, Kreren-striit, Sept. 28, 1768.

## ii. Noah Webster's Remares on Ayerican Exglise.

Noah Webster's English Dictionary has so recently become popular in England that we can scarcely look upon him as belonging to the xime th century. But having been born in Connecticut in 1758, his associations with English pronunciation in America are referable to a period of English pronunciation in England belonging quite to the beginning of the xvirith, if not even to the latter half of the xpirth century. The recent editions of the Dictionary all shew a "rerised" pronunciation, so that the historical character of the work in this respect is destroyed. The following extracts from a special and little known work by the same author are valuable for our purpose, as they convey much information on the archaisms which were at least then prevalent in America, aud distinguish in many cases between American and English pronunciation.

[^1][^2]Title. Dissertations on the English Language: with notes, historical and critical. To which is added, by way of Appendix, an Essay on a lieformed Mude of Spelling, with Dr. Franklin's Arguments on that Subject. By Noah Webster, Jun., Esquire. Printed at Boston for the Author, 1789. 8ro., pp. xvi., 410 . Press-mark at l 3ritish Museum, 825 g .27 . Dedicated "to his Excellency Benjamin Franklin, Esq., LL.D., F.R.S., late President of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania," Hartford.

In Franklin's Works (London, 1806, vol. 2, p. 351 ), under date 26 Dec. 1789, there is a letter from Franklin to Webster, acknowledging and praising this book, and drawing attention to the following Americanisms as having beeu adopted subsequently to 1723. Improved for employed or used, as "a eountry house many years improved as a tavern; a country gentleman for more than thirty years improved as a justice of the peace." "A verb from the substantive notice. I should not have noticed this, were it not that the gentleman, etc. Also another verb from the substantive advocate: The gentleman
who advocatcs or who has advocated that motive, cte. Another from the substantive progress, the most awkward and abominable of the three: the committee having progressed, resolved to adjourn. The word opposed, though not a new word, I find used in a new manner, as, the gentlemen who are opposed to this measure, to which I have also myself always been opposed. If," continues Franklin, addressing W'ebster, "you should happen to be of my opinion with respect to these innovations, you will use your authority in reprobating them." "The words are still all in use in America ; and to notice, to adrocate, and opposed are common in England, where even to progress is heard. The point of interest is that in the use as well as in the pronunciation of words, elderly people are being continually offended by innovations whieh they look upon as deteriorations, but which eonstantly prevail in spite of such deunnciations.

In the following paragraphs all is Webster's writing, except the passages between brackets and in palieotype. The pages of the original are also inserted in brackets as they arise.
[Note at back of contents, p. xvi.]
The sounds of the vowels, marked or referred to in the second and third dissertations, are according to the Key in the First Part of the Institute. Thus:

|  | a | e | i | 0 | u |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First sound, | late, | feet, | night, | note, | tune, | sky |
| Second | hat, | let, | tin, |  | tun, | glory |
| Third |  | law, | fraud |  |  |  |
| Fourth |  | ask, | father |  |  |  |
| Fiflh |  | not, | what |  |  |  |
| Sisth |  | prove, | room |  |  |  |

[p. 83] Thus $i$ in fit has the same quality of sound as $e e$ in feet. . . . The other vowels have also their short or abrupt sounds; a in late [p. 84] has its short sound in let; a in cart has its short sound in carry; a in fall has its short sound in folly; oo in fool its short sound in fiell. $O$ is sometimes shortened in common parlance, as in colt; but the distinotion between o in coal and colt seems to be aceidental or caused by the final consonant, and not sufficiently settled or important to require a separate consideration. . . . . [IIere we have the usual difficulties (ii, i) or (ii, $i$ ) ? (aa, a) or (aa, x)? (AA, A) or (AA, o) ; (uu, u) or (uu, u)? P'erhaps colt was (kolt), not (kolt), in the pronunciation referred to. This point will
be again alluded to when touching on present Ameriean English, Chap. XI. § 1.]

The letters, $i, u$ and $y$ are usually classed among the vowels; but the first or long sound of each requires, in pronunciation, two positions of the organs of speech, or rather a transition from the position necessary to form one simple sound, to the position necessary to form another simple sound. We begin the sound of $i$ nearly with the same aperture of the glottis, [a mere error arising from necessary ignorance of the mechamism of speech, the glottis being closed for all vowels,] as we do the broad $a$ or aw. The aperture however is not quite so great. We rapidly close the mouth to the position where
we pronounce $c e$, and there stop the sound ( $a \mathrm{i}$ ?). This letter is therefore a dipthong.
$U$ also is not strictly a rowel; nor is it, as it is commonly represented, composed [p. 85] of $e$ and oo. We do not begin the sound in the position necessary to sound $e c$, as is obvious in the words salute, salubrious, revolution; but with a greater aperture of the mouth and with a position perfectly easy and natural. From that position we pass to the position with which we pronounce $o o$, and there close the sound. It must however be observed that when these letters $i, u$, are followed by a eonsonaut, the two sounds of the dipthong are not clearly distinguishable. We do not, in fight, hear the sound of ce; nor the sound of oo in cube. The consonant compresses the organs and closes the sound of the word so suddenly, that the ear can distinguish but a simple vocal sound. And notwithstanding these letters are dipthongs, when considered by themselves, yet in combination with consonants, they are often marks of simple sounds or vowels. [This may only indicate an insufficient power of analysis. The diphthongs were perhaps only much shorter in these cases, that is, had the second element, and the connecting glide much shorter, giving a compressed effect. But cube, which is now really (kiúub), with a long second element, may have been squeezed into (kyb), by the "linking " of its elements as ( $i * u=y$ ) very nearly. Similarly fight may have reached (fet), as (a*i)=(E) very nearly. See further remarks on long $u$ near the end of these extracts, infrà p . 1069.]

The short sound of $i$ and $y$ is merely short ee. The sound of $u$ in tume is a separate vowel, which has no affinity to any other sound in the language. [Can this be (yy)? Compare Steele's tune, p. 1057, and Kenrick, p. 1052, No. 6.]

The sound of oi or oy is dipthongal, composed of the third or broad $a$ and ee. [We have then the old difficulty in separating long $i$ from oy, both being made (Ai) or (ai). p. 86] The sound of ou or ow is also dipthongal, compounded of third $a$ and oo. 'The sound however does not require quite so great an aperture of the mouth as broad $a$; the position is more natural, and the articulation requires less exertion (au?).
[p. 88] The vowels therefore in

English are all heard in the following words, late, half, hall, feet, pool, note, tun, fight, truth. The five first have short sounds or duplicates, which may be heard in let, hat, hot, fit, pull ; and the Ietters $i$ and $u$ are but accidentally vowels. The pure primitive vowels in English are therefore seven.

The dipthongs may be heard in the following words: lie or defy, due, voice or joy, round or now. To these we may add ua in persuade; and perhaps the combinations of $w$ and the vowels, in well, will, etc.
[p. 92 Webster remarks that $i$ has its first sound in bind, find, mind, kind, blind, grind. But wind has the second short sound of $i$. Then in a footnote, p. 93, he adds:] On the stage, it is sometimespronounced with $i$ long, either for the sake of rhime, or in order to be heard. Mr. Sheridan marks it both ways; yet in common discourse he pronounces it with $i$ short, as do the nation in general.
[Cambridge, danger, and perhaps manger. Aiso angel, ancient have (ee).] In this all the standard authors [p. 94] agree, except Kenrick and Burn, who mark $a$ in aneient both long and short. The English pronunciation is followed in the middle and southern states [of America]; but the eastern universities have restored these words to the analogy of the language, and give $a$ its second sound ( $(x)$. It is presumed that no reason can be given for making these words exceptions to the general rule, but practice; and this is far from being universal, there being many of the best speakers in America, who give $a$ in the words mentioned the same sound as in anguish, annals, angelic, untiquity.

In the word chamber, $a$ has its fourth sound (aa). It is necessary to remark this, as [p.95] there are many people in America who give $a$ its first sound (ee), which is contrary to analogy and to all the English authorities. [Mr. White, suprà p. 968 , c. 1, in a note on LL $5,1,5(150,22)$, says: "The isolation of the Englishmen of New England, and their consequent protection from exterior influences, caused changes in pronunciation, as well as in idiom, to take place more slowly among them than among their brethren who remained in the mother-country; and the orthoepy for which the worthy pedant contends, is not very far removed from that of thic grandfathers
and great-grandfathers of the present generation in the more sequestered parts of the eastern states. The scholars among these, as well as those who had received only that commonschool education which no Tankee is allowed to lack, did not, for instance, in Holofernian phrase, speak coud and woud fine, but pronounced all the consonants, could and would; they said sword, not sored; they pronounced 'have' to rhyme with 'rave,' not hav, -'jest,' which used to be written jeast, jeest to rhyme with 'yeast,''pert,' which of old was spelled peart, peert: and in compound words they said for instance 'clean-ly,' not clon-ly, and, correctly, 'an-gel,' 'cham-ber,' 'dan-ger,' not ane-gel, chame-ber, daneger. Their accents yet linger in the ears of some of us, and make the words of Shakespeare's pedagogue not altogether strange." As regards chamber see Moore's rhyme: amber chamber, suprà p. 8j9, col. 1.]
[p. 96] I consider these terminations tion, sion, cion, cial, cian, as single syllables.
[ p .103 ] In the eastern states there is a practice prevailing among the body of the people of prolonging the sound of $i$ in the termination ive. In such words as motive, relative, etc., the people, excepting the more polished part, give $i$ its first sound (ai \%). This is a loeal practice, opposed to the general [p. 104] pronunciation of English on both sides of the Atlantic. . . . . [In footnote to p. 104] The final $e$ must be considered as the cause of this vulgar dialect. It is wished that some bold genius would dare to be right, and spell this class of words without $c$, motiv.
[ $\mathrm{p}, 105$ ] In the middle states . . . many people pronounce pratise, prejudice with $i$ long. I know of no authority for this beyond the limits of two or three states.

Another very common error, among the yeomanry of America, and particularly in New England, is the pronouncing of $e$ before $r$, like $a$; as marcy for merey. This mistake must have originated principally in the name of the letter $r$, which, in minst of our zehool-books, is called ar. This single mistake has spread a false pronunciation of several hundred words among millions of people. [In a footnote] To remedy the evil in some degree, this letter is named er, in the Institute.

In a few instances this pronunciation is become general among polite speakers, as clerks, sergeant, etc. [In text] To avoid this disagreeable singularity, some fine speakers have run into another extreme, by pronouncing $e$ before $r$, like $n$, murey. This is an error. The true sound of the short $e$, as in let, is the correct and elegant pronumciation of this letter in all words of this class. [But (mersi) can now only be heard in Scotland.]
[p. 106] There is a vulgar singularity in the pronunciation of the eastern people, which is very incorrect, and disagreeable to strangers, that of prefixing the sound of $i$ short or $e$, before the dipthong ow; as kiour, piower. or peower. This fault usually occurs after $p, c$ hard, or those other consonants which are formed near the seat of $e e$ in the mouth. . . . But the most awkward countryman pronounces round, ground, etc., with tolerably propriety.
[Webster then remarks on the New England drawl, and attributes it to its "political institutions" !]
[p. 108, note, he speaks of ] the surprising similarity between the idioms of the New Englaind people and those of Chaucer, Shakespear, Congreve, ete., who wrote in the true English style.
[ p .109 , he speaks of ] the very modern pronunciation of kind, sky, guine, etc., in which we hear the short $e$ before $i$, keind, or kiyine, skey, etc. [he compares it to the eastern keow, veou, and adds :] Yet, strange as it may seem, it is the elegant pronunciation of the fashionable people both in England and America [but he strongly disapproves of it].
[p. 110] Some of the southern people, particularly in Virginia, almost onit the sound of $r$, as in warc, there. In the best English pronunciation the sound of $r$ is much softer than in some of the neighbouring langnages, particularly the Irish and Spanish, and probably much softer than in the ancient Greek. . . . [This omission of the $r$, or its degradation to ( $x, \partial$, '), is still very prevalent in America as in England, it we may judge from Yankee books of drollery, but its prevalence in Wehster's time indicates that it was at least well known in England in the xyir the century. See suprà p. 974.]

It is a custom very prevalent in the middle states, even among some wellbred people, to pronounce offi, soft, drop,
crop, with the sound of a, aff, saft, drap, crap. [p. 111] This seems to be a forcign and local dialect ; and camnot be adrocated by any person who understands correct English. [In a note on this passage, p. 383, he adds:] The dialect in America is peculiar to the descendants of the Scotch Irish. [In sheridan's Trip to Scarborough, acted in 1775, a refashionment of Vanbrugh's Relapse, 1697, we still meet with, rat, lard, stap, Gad in oaths, and Tam in an address; cgad is in the School for Scandal, and may be heard still, and in Dorsetshire we shall find many such cases.]
[p. 111] In the middle states also, many people pronounce a $t$ at the end of once and tuice, oncet and twict. This gross impropriety would not be mentioned, but for its prevalence among a class of very well educated people; particularly in Philadelphia and Bahtimore.

Fotch for fetch is rery common, in several states, but not among the better classes of people. Catched for caught is more frequent, and equally barbarous.

Skroud and skrouge for croud, are sometimes heard among people that should be ashamed of the least vulgarism.

Mought for might is heard in most of the states, but not frequently, except in a few towns.

Holpe for help I have rarely heard, except in Virginia, [where, in a note, p. 384, he says] it is pronounced hope. "Shall I hope you, sir?"

Tote is local in Virginia and its neighbourhood. In meaning it is nearly equi calent to carry.

Chore, a corruption of char, is perhaps confined to New England.
[In a note on this passage, p. 385. he remarks the use of dern pronounced durn for great, severe in New Eugland; also ax for ask there.]
[p. 388] Shet for shut is now become vulgar. In New England we frequently hear becase to this day. It is pronounced becaze. The vulgar pronunciation of such is sich.
[p. 112] The pronnaciation of $w$ for $v$ is a prevailing practice in England and America; it is particularly prevalent in Boston and Pbiladelphia. [p. 113] Many people say wecal, wessel, for veal, vessel. [In a footnote he says:] I am at a loss to determine why this practice should prevail in Loston and
not in Connecticut. The first and principal settlers in Hartford came from the vicinity of Boston. Vast numbers of people in Boston and the neighbourhood use $w$ for $v$, yet I never once heard this pronunciation in Conuceticut.
[p. 114] The words shall, quality, quantity, qualify, quandary, quadrunt, are differently pronounced by good speakers. Some give a a broad sound as shol, quolity, and others its second sound as in hat. With respect to the four first almost all the standard writers [who in a footnote are named as Kemick, Sheridan, Burn, Perry and Scott ] agree to pronounce a short as in hat, and this is [p. 115] the stage pronunciation. It is correct, for it is more agreeable to the amalogy of the language; that being the proper somnd of the English a which is heard in hat or bar. [Hence Webster ought to have said (нat) and not (нæt), like Kenrick.] With respect $t$, the two last, authors differ ; some give the first (ec), some the second (ei), and others the fifth sound ( 0 ). They all pretend to give us the court pronunciation, and as they differ so widely, we must suppose that eminent speakers differ in practice. In such a case, we can hardly hesitate a moment to call in analogy to decide the question, and give $a$ in all these words, as also in quash, its second sound (æ). [In a footnote he observes:] The distinction in the pronunciation of $a$ in quality when it signifies the property of some body ( 0 ? ), and when it is used for high rank (æ?), appears to me without foundation in rule or practice.
[p. 115 text] The words either neithcr, deceit, conceit, receipt, are generally pronomeed by the eastern people ither, nither, desate, consate, resate. These are errors ; all the standard authors agree to give $c i$ in these words the sound of $c e$. This is the practice in England, in the middle and southern States.
[1. 116] Importance is by a few people pronounced impolrtance, with the first sound of $o(o o)$. . . . It seems however to be affectation, for the standard writers and general practice are opposed to it.

Decis-ive for deci-siec is mere affectation.

Reesin for raisin is very prevalent in two or three principal towns in America.

Leisure is sometimes pronounced
lecsure and sometimes lezhure; the latter is the [ p .117 ] most general pronunciation in America.

Dietionary has been usually pronounced dicsonary.

One author of eminence pronounces defile in three syllables def-i-le. In this he is singular ; . . . all the other authorities are against him.

With respect to oblige, authorities differ. The standard writers give us both oblige and oblecge, and it is impossible to determine on which side the weight of authority lies.
[p. 118] Some people very erroneously pronounce chaise, sha in the singular and shaze in the plural. [The pronuuciation (poo shee) for post chaise was familiar to me in London fifty years ago.]

Our modern fashionable speakers accent European on the last syllable but one. This innovation has happened within a few years. [p. 119] Analogy requires Euro'pean and this is supported by as good authorities as the other. [Footnote p. 118] Hymenean and hymeneal are, by some writers, accented on the last syllable but one, but erroneously; other authorities preserve the analogy.
[p. 119] Rome is very frequently pronounced Room, and that by people of every class. The authors I have consulted give no light upon this word except Perry, who directs to that pronunciation. The practice however is by no means general in America. There are many good speakers who give $o$ its first sound (oo). It seems very absurd to give o its first sound (oo) in Romish, Romans, and pronounce it oo in Rome, the radical word.
[ p .120 ] In the pronunciation of areh in many compound words, people are not uniform. The disputed words are archangel, arehetype, arehitectuve, architrave, arehives. . . . The sound of ch in chart is likewise disputed.
[p. 121] 'There are many people who omit the aspirate in most words which begin with wh, as white, uhip, ete., which they pronounce wite, wip, ete. To such it is necessary to observe that in the pure English pronunciation both in Great Britain and New England, for it is exactly the same in both, $h$ is not sileut in a single word beginning with $w h$. In this point our standard authors differ; two of them aspirating the whole of these words, and three mark-
ing $h$ in most of them as mute. [Kenrick always marks $h$ as mute, or $w h=(w)$.] But the omission of $h$ seems to be a foreigu corruption; for in America it is not known among the unmixed descendants of the English. .. In this class of words $w$ is silent in four only, with their derivatives; viz. who, whole, whoop, whore.
[p. 122] One or two authors affect to pronounce haman and about twenty other words beginning with $h$, as though they were spelt yuman. This is a gross error. The only word that begins with this sound is humor, with its derivatives. In the American pronunciation $h$ is silent in the following, honest, honor, hour, hamor, herb, heir, with their derivatives. To these the English add hospital, hostler, humble; but an imitation of these, which some industriously affect, cannot be recommended, as every omission of the aspirate serves to mutilate and weaken the language.
[p. 123] The word yelk is somctimes written yolk and pronounced yoke. But yelk is the most correct orthography, from the Sason gealkwe [spelled geoleca, qeolea, from geolu yellow, in Ettmiiller, p. 418] ; and in this country it is the general pronunciation.

Ewe is, by the English, often pronounced yo; which is sometimes heard in America. But analogy and the general corresponding practice in this country, . . decide for yew.
The English speakers of eminence have shortened the vowel in the first syllable of tyranmy, zealous, sacrifice, etc. ... [that is, made it ( $i, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e}$ ) respectively, as is now the general English custom]. This pronunciation has not spread among the people of this country [that is, presumably, they make it ( $a \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{ii}$, ee) respectively]. . . . Many people in America say pat-ron, mat-ron; whereas the English say either pa-tron or pat-ron, ma-tron [ p . 124] or mat-ron, but all agree in saying pat-ronage. In patriol, patriotism, the English give a its long sound, bat a great part of the Americans, its short sound. ['This is similar to the use of pro-verbs for prov-erls which Mr. White, Shakspere's Works 3, 226, says "still lingers in New England."]

Wrath the English pronounce with the third sound of $a$ or aw (AA), but the Americans almost universally preserve the analognus sound, as in bath, path [(aa) or (a) ! ].
[p. 125] In the middle and southern states, fierec, pierce, tierce, are pronounced feerce, pceree, teerce. To convince the people of the impropriety of this pronunciation, it might be sufficient to inform them, that it is not fashionable on the English theater. [ $\mathrm{p}, 126$ ] The standard English pronunciation now is ferce, perce, teree [which is now, 1871 , unknown in the South of England; see suprà p. 105, n. 1], and it is universal in New England.

The English pronounce leap, lcp; and that in the present tense as well as the past. Some of our American horsemen have learnt the practice; but among other people it is almost unknown.

In the fashionable world, heard is pronounced hevd or hurd. This was almost unknown in America till the commencement of the late war [that of Independence], and how long it has been [p. 127] the practice in England I cannot determine. . . . That herd was not formerly the pronnnciation, is probable from this circumstance; the Americans were strangers to it when they came from England, and the body of the people are so to this day. To most people in this country the English pronunciation appears like [p. 128] affectation, and is adopted only in the capital towns. [It is implied that the Americans say hecrd, like Dr. Johnson, suprà p. 624, note, c. 2.]

Beard is sometimes, but erroneously, pronounced bcerd. General practice, both in England and America, requires that $e$ should be pronounced as in were, and I know of no rule opposed to the practice.

Deaf is generally pronounced deef. It is the universal practice in the eastern states, and it is general in the middle and southern; though some have adopted the English pronunciation def. The latter is evidently a corruption.
[p. 131] Gold is differently pronounced by good speakers. [He decides for (goold) in preference to (gumld).]
[p. 133] Similar reasons and equally forccable are opposed to the modern pronunciation of wound [as (wund); he decides for (waund). p. 134] There is but a small part even of the wellbred people in this country, who have yetadopted the English mode [(wuund)].
[p. 136] Skeptic for secptic is mere pedantry. [He apparently refers only
to the spelling, but as he instances the spelling scene, scepter, he perhaps said (sep tik).]
[p. 137] Sauce with the fourth sound of $a$ (aa), is accounted vulgar; yet this is the ancient, the correct and most general pronunciation. The $a w$ of the North Britons is much affected of late; sauce, hawnt, vawnt; yet the true sonnd is that of aunt, jaunt, and a change can produce no sensible advantage.
[He decides in favour of accenting advertisement, chastisement on the last syllable but one, and accéptable, admirable, disputable, eomparable on the last but two, and says, p. 141 :] The people at large say admi'reable, dispu'teable, compa'reable, and it wonld be difficult to lead them from this easy and natural pronunciation, to embrace that forced one of ad'mirable, etc. The people are right, and, in this particular, will ever have it to boast of, that among the unlearned is found the purity of English pronunciation. [He admits rep'utable as an exception. He decides for access'ary, p. 14\%.]
[p. 143] Immedyate is so difficult, that every person who attempts to pronounce it in that manner will fall into immejate. Thus commodious, comedian, tragedian, are very politely pronounced commojus, comejan, trajejan [which he denounces, and requires -di- to form a distinet syllable].
[On pp. 147-179, he has a disquisition on the promunciation of $d, t$, and $s$ before $u$, as (dzh, tsh, sh), to which he is strongly opposed. The argument goes to shew that it was then common in England and not in America. But the only parts which it is necessary to quote are the following. After citing Wallis's account of long $u$ (suprà p. 171), he says on his p. 151 :]

This is precisely the idea I have ever had of the English $u$; except that I cannot allow the sonnd to be perfeetly simple. If we attend to the manner in which we begin the sound of $u$ in Alute, abjure, truth, we shall observe that the tongue is not pressed to the mouth so closely as in pronouncing $e$; the aperture of the organs is not so small; and I presume that good speakers, and am confident that most people, do not pronounce these words fleute, abjeure, treuth. Neither do they pronounce them flootc, abjoore, trooth; but with a sound formed by
an casy natural aperture of the mouth, between iu and oo; which is the true English sound. This sound, however, obscured by affectation in the metropolis of Great Britain and [p. 152] the capital towns in America, is still preserved by the body of the people in both countries. There are a million descendants of the Saxons in this country who retain the sound of $u$ in all cases, precisely according to Wallis's definition. Ask any plain countryman, whose pronunciation has not been exposed to corruption by mingling with toreigners, how he pronounces the letters $t, r, u, t h$, and he will not sound $u$ like $e u$, nor oo, but will express the real primitive English u. Nay, if people wish to make an accurate trial, let them direct any child of seven years old, who has had no previous instruction respecting the matter, to pronounce the words suit, tumult, due, etc., and they will thus ascertain the true sound of the letter. Children pronounce $u$ in the most natural manner; whereas the sound of it requires a considerable effort, and that of oo, a forced position of the lips. Illiterate persons therefore pronounce the genuine English " much better than those who have attempted to shape their pronunciation according to the modern polite gractice. [p. 189] In modern times, we have, in many words, blended the sound of $u$ with that of $e w$, or rather use them promiscuously. It is indifferent, as to the pronunciation, whether we write fucl or feacel. And yct in this word, as also in new, brew, etc., we do not hear the sound of $e$, except among the Virginians, who affect to pronounce it distinctly, ne-ıw, ne-oo, fe-oo. This affectation is not of modern date, for Wallis mentions it in his time and reprobates it [suprà p. 139].
[It would be difficult to imagine the sound from the above description. Years ago the sound was a source of great difficulty to me, because Americans refused to consider $u$ as (in) or (su). I have not been able to study the sound sufficiently, but it sometimes seems to be (cu), at others (yu) or (ou). Sce suprá p. 980, n. 1. Webster says in a
footnote, p. 127 :] The company that purchased New England was, indeed, called the Plymouth Company, being composed principally of persons belonging to the County of Devon. But many of the principal settlers in these -states came from London and its vicinity ; some from the middle countics, the ancient kingdom of Mercia; and a few from the northern counties. [And he adds:] There is not the least affinity between the languages of New England and the specimens of the Devonshire dialect given in the English Magazines. [But this sound of $u$ seems to be in favour of a West of Eugland origin ; as it is not pure xvir th century. The next point of importance is, $p$. 156 :]

But another inconsistency in the modern practice is the introducing an $e$ before the second sound of $u$ in tun; or rather changing the preceding consonant; for in rature, rapture, and hundreds of other words, $t$ is changed into tsh; and yet no person pretends that $u$ in these words has its dipthongal sound. . . . [p. 157] I believe no person ever pretended that this sound of $u$ contains the sound of $\varepsilon$ or $y, \ldots$ and I challenge the advocates of the practice to produce a reason for pronomaing natshur, raptshur, captshur, which will not extend to authorize not only tshun, tshurn for tun, turn, but also fatshal for fatal and immortshal for immortal. Nay the latter pronunciation is actually heard among some very respectable imitators of fashion ; and is frequent [ p .158 ] among the illiterate, in those states where the tshis's are most fashionable. . . . I am sensible that some writers of novels and plays have ridiculcd the common pronunciation of creatur and natur by introducing these and similar words into low characters, and spelling them creuter, nater, [which he considers a mistake, because the somed is $-u r$ and not $-e r$ fimal, even when written $a, e, i$, o; adding, p. 159:] Liar, elder, factor are pronounced liur, eldur, fuetur, and this is the true sound of $u$ in creature, nature, rapture, legislature, ctc. [See suprà p. 973 , under URE.]
§3. Noteworthy Promunciations and Rhymes of the Eighteenth Century, collected from the Expert Orthographist 1704, Dyche 1710, Buchanan 1760, Franklin 1768, and Sheridan 1780, and various pocts.

Notewortiy Pronunciations of the Eighteenth Century.
To form a better notion of the melting of the pronunciation current in the xrirth century into that of the xvirith, which is the direct source of the pronunciation now in use, I have collected many noteworthy pronunciations from the writers above named.

1) The Expert Orthogriphist, 1704, exhibits an early form of the genuine xvir th century pronunciation, which partly was an anticipation of what became current fifty years later, and partly retained the old forms. The marked peculiarity is in the words containing ea, which were forced into (ii) beyond what afterwards received the sanction of use. Not too much valne is to be attributed to this writer as representing the general promunciation of the period. At most he bears the same relation to Jones, that Hart did to Smith in the xvi th century. But there is this difference, that Hart was a travelled, educated man, and the Orthographist was evidently a third-rate English teacher, unused to educated society.
2) Drcire, 1710, is of but very limited use, as he merely describes the sounds in the accented syllables of a few words, and does not symbolize them with sufficient accuracy. The sounds here given are therefore rather guesses than transcripts in several instances.
3) Bucianax, 1766, was not only a Scotchman, but had many Scotch proelivities, which render his rocabulary suspicious in parts. Thus, it cannot be supposed that the English language lad short (i) and not $(i)$, in competition and similar words, which is a thoronghly Scotch peculiarity, or that any but a Scotchman called drunken (drok•n). There seems reason to suppose that many, perhaps most, perhaps all, of Buchanan's short o's, here marked as (o), were pronounced by him as ( 0 ), thus post could hardly hare been (post), although it conld not be marked otherwise in accordance with his notation, as this pronunciation will not harmonize at all with (puust, poost) given by others, whereas (post) would only be a Scotch pronunciation of (poost). Nevertheless, the completeness and early date of this attempt to "establish a standard for an elegant and miform pronunciation of the English langnage," has rendered it necessary to go throngh the whole, and select such words as on any account seemed worthy of preservation.
4) Frinklin, 1768 , has only left us the fragment printed in the preceding section. A few words have here been selected, and their orthography has been corrected so as to represent what Frankliu apparently meant to convey.
5) Sheridin, 1780 , commences a series of pronouncing dietionaries, which will here be carcfully passed over, but his near approach to Buchanan and Franklin, and his peculiarities, which must represent some pronunciations current during that period, dashed
though they be with his own orthoepistic fancies, rendered him the proper termination of these rescarches. All the words taken from Buchanan have therefore been compared with Sheridan. Kenrick's peculiarities can be sufficiently judged from his descriptions of the rowels, given above. Hence it has not been thought necessary to add his pronunciations to Sheridan's, with which they were so nearly contemporary.

Lediard's were collected subsequently to the completion of this index, and have not been added, they are however so arranged on pp. 1040-9, that they can be easily reforred to.

The letters O, D, B, F, S, placed after the pronumciations, refer to these authorities in order. The transcript has been made after much consideration, but there are some doubtful points. It is probable that the (o) assigned to the Orthographist and Dyche, did not differ from Sheridan's ( 1 ). It is only Buchanan who seems to make a difference between ( 0 ) and ( A ), and, as we have seen, this may have arisen from his saying (o) and (A).

## A

abeyance æbii' sens $S$
ablution æcbliu'shon $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
abroad abradd B, S, 0
abstruse tebstriuz ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{B}$, xbstruus* S absume æbsium• B, S abundant rebond-int B , æben $\cdot$ dent S aeadenial ækædenr'sil B , ækædiim $\cdot$ sel S
academician ækædemish in B , ækædeemishren S
acelain sekleem• B, S
acelamation eklimee shən B , æklæmee-shen S
ueelivity $x k l i v$-iti B, $x k l i v i t i \mathrm{~S}$
whe eek B, S
ueknowledge eeknol- idsh B, æknal $\cdot$ Edzh S
acres ce korz $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
aetual rek'tiuil B, æk'tiurel S
adagio ædee $\cdot$ dzhio B , ædiex $\cdot$ dzhoo S
adhere edhiir 0 0, B, S
adjudicate seddzhuu dikeet $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
adjure æddzhuur• B, S
adulation redsulee shon $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
adventure edvent $\cdot$ yor B , edren tshor S
acrial ceiir Jil B , exii- rsel S
acrie eeiri B , ecri S
again ægen: $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
agio cellzh io B
ah ææ B. S
alien ocl-ien 0 , cel'sin B , ectisen S
all Aal B, S
almond $\mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{m} \mathrm{n}^{2} \mathrm{O}$, æel-mond B , ææ•miond $s$
alnoner wel-munir B , wl-mioner S almost Amoost• D, Aalmoost B, S alms æædms B, ææmz S
alternate Allter nit B, eelternnet S
unatory ec maxtori B, æm'ettri S
amber æm•br B, æm•bor S amenable xmin•ibl B, æmii•næbl S
amiable ee•mijibl B, ee•msæbl S
amnesty ren'sti B , rem'nesti S
among remaq $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{S}$
amour æmoor B , æmuur' S
an๙reh ee'nærk $B$, æn'ærk $S$
angel æn•dzhil B, cen•dzhel F, een'dzhel S
anoint ænəint O , ænoint $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, ænasint $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
answer' æn'sar B , æn•ser S
ant went $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
antic æn'tik B, S
antique ren'tik B, antiik• S
anxious æeqk'shas B , æqk'ssəs S
any æn- $i \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
aorist eeorist B , ceoorist S
apostle æpps. 1 B , æpas tl S
«ppoint æр
apparel æperil B, æprer-El S

April ee prail B, ee'pril S
apron ee'pərn 0 , ap rorn $B$, ee'pron $S$
aquatic ækwæt ik B, S
arable eer: ibl C , xr x bl S
areh æertsh $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
arehitect ærkitekt D, B, æerrkitekt S
are er B, eer F, ier S
arca cerice 1 , S
arm жeerm $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
armada ææ㔾теe-dx $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
arsenal eersmil B, weers nel S
Asia esh ric B
ask rosk B, S
askance æskAns• B , æskæns S
aslant æslæe:nt• B , aslent• S
ass aes B, S
asthma rest-max D, B, res'ma S
asylum æs:ilom B, æssilom S
athletic rethlii'tik B , wethlet $i \mathrm{k}$ S
atrocious ætroo'shos B, S
augury $\mathrm{AA} \cdot \mathrm{g}$ gri $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{AA} \cdot g i m r i \mathrm{~S}$
aunt ænt D , æænt B , æut S
austere astiir $\cdot \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
avenue æv•niu B , æv-iiniu S
avoirdupoise æv•erdəpoiz B , æVErde-
paaiz' S
await eweet• B, æweet•S
awkward $\mathrm{AAk} \cdot$ ird $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{AA} \cdot \mathrm{kord}$ S
aul anl B, S
axiom æk'siəm B, æk'shom S
azure eez'Jor B , ee zhor S

## B

bacchanals bæk•inilz B, bæk`æuælz S
bacon beek•n B. S
bagnio bæи•з B , bæn•งoo S
balcomy bal $\cdot$ koni B , brelkoo ni S
bald baald D, B, S
balderdash bal dirdæsh B, basl'derdæsh S
ball baal D, B, S
balm betem B, S
banquet bæqk'et D , bæqk $\cdot i t, \mathrm{~B}$, bæqk• wit S
baptize bæptoiz B, bæptaiz• S
bard bæærd $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
barrier bæriir• B, bær-JEr S
basc bees $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
basin bees'n B, S
basis beeziz B, bee'sis S
bass bærs in music, bas a mat, S
baste beest B, S
bastion bæst•Jən B , bæs'tshən S
bath bæth B, bæeth S
bathe beedh $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
bear beer $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{D}$
beard berd 0 , beerd B , berd S
Bede Biid 0
behove binuuv $0, \mathrm{~S}$
benign binain $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, bïnain $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
bequeath bikweedh•B, biikwiidh•S
besom bii'zon D, biiz•m B, S
bestiality bestJan $\cdot$ liti B , bestshæl-iti S
beyond bisond• $O$, biisond B , biisaud• S
bind boind D , baind S
bird bord B, S
blanch blæeensh B, blentsh S
blank ble:eqk B, blæqk S
blast blæst B, S
blaspheme bixsfiim• O, B, S
blood bled 0, B, S
boatswain boo $\sin \mathrm{B}$, boo sn S
boil boil O, bail B, bail S
bold bould B, boold S
boltsprit boasprit B, S
bolster bol-stir B, bool'star S
bolter bovleter boul'tar 0 , bool'tor S
bombard bombrerd• B, bombæærd• S
bombasine bombæziin• $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
book buuk B, s
borage bor-idzh B, S
border barrdir B, baar•dar S
bore boor B, S
born barn L , baarn S
borne buurn $O$, boorn $S$
borough bar:o B , bar*oo S
bosom baz'em B, baz'em F, buu'zəm S
bough boo B, bau S
bought boot O?, bat B, bat S
boult boult B, boolt S
bourn barn B, buurn $S$
bouze bouz B, buuz S
bouze boose buuz B, S
bow boo bau B, boo bau S
bowl boul (), (globe) boul, (vessel) bool
D, baul B, bool S
boy boi B, baai S
branch braansh O, bræænsh B, bræush S
brass bres B, S
brasicr breez'Jí B, bree zahor S
bravo brev'o B, bree'voo S
break briik 0, B, S
breakfast brek fest 0 , brek fist $B$, brek faest S
breeches meetches britshoiz B, S
Bristol Bristo 0, D
broad brood B, brasd S
brocade brokeed B , brookeed $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
broil brail O, broil B, brail S
brooch bruutsh B, S
broth broth B, brasth S
brought broot O ?, brat B , braat S
bruise briuz 0, bruuz B, S
brute bruut $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
brumal briu'mil B, bruu*mæl S
build bild O, B, S
buoy boi B, bwii S
burgh bar"o B, bar"oo S
burglary bar-gleeri B, bər-glæri S
burial biriæl D, beri,il B, ber'jæl S
bury biri D , ber $i \mathrm{~B}$, beri S
bush bush B, S
bustle bas $1 \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
busy bizi B, bizi S
butcher butsh ir B, butsh or S

## C

cabal kæbaAl•B, kæbæl•S
cadaverous kædæv-rəs B , kædæv•eerəs S
cadet kee dit B, kadet ' S
cadi kædii• B, keedi S
Calais keel-is D
calculate kel-kjiuleet B, kxl-kiuleet S
caldron kæl'dron l, kaal•dron S
calf kaaf O, kæexf B, S
caliber kel ibir B, kelii-bor S
calk kask B, S
call kaAl D, B, S
calm kaam O, kææm B, kelm F, kææm S
calx kalks B, kxlks S
cambric kæm•brik B, keem•brik S
Canaan sce mien D
canine keenoin $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, kenain S
canoe krenoo. B, kennu• S
cantatu kientee-tæ $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
eapacious ktepesh os B , kæpee'shas S
capillary kxpil'eeri B, kæpilwri S
cupouch kippuntsh• B
caprice keepriis' B, kæpriis' S
capricious kerprish $\cdot$ as $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
eapture kep tor B, kepptshar S
capuchin kep inshiin D, keposhiin• B,
kæpiushiin'S
capricorn kee•prikorn B, keprikarn S
curabine kar"xboin B, kexer"bain S
varabineer heribiniur B , kerbiniir" S
earact kier-it B, keeræet S
caravan kærevæen B, S
caractey krer-wee B, kæræwee S
card kiewed B, S
carmine ker•min B, kxær'main S
carnelion kærnel•sən B, kærmij•lsən S carte-blanche kart-blensh B, kæert bleutsh S
cartouch kæertonsh• B, kærtuntsh• S
carriage kæreedzh 0 , kæridzh D,
kær idsh B, S
earvion kxr in B, kær'Jan S
castle kas•tl 13, kæs•l S
casual kxziuil B , kæziuæl S
casually kæz iuli B, keziuæli S
casuulty kiez inlti B, kæz iurelti S
casuist kæz inist B, S
catarrh ket:er B, kætær• S
causeuray kas-si B, kass'wee S
cavil kev-l B, kær-il S
ceiling cieling sii $\cdot$ in B , sii $\cdot$ liq S
coment n. sim•int $B$, sem•ent $S$
coment V . siment $-B$, siiment $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
censture sen'sər B, sE11-shər S
contenary sen theeri B , sen tiineri S
coruse sifros B, serius S
chaff tshef $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
chagrin shegriin $\cdot \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
chair tsheer B, S
chaise sheez D, B, S
chaldron tsax dorn D , tshad drin B , tshaA dran S
chamber thaxem bir B , tshæem-bor S
champaign :hæmpeen $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
chandelier chandeler shandeeliir. S
chandler tshaen dlir B, tshæend-lor S
change tsheendzh D , tsheendsh B , tsheendzh S
chant tsheecut B , thhent S
chaos kice"'os B, kee"As S
chaplain that plin D, B, S
chaps themps B, tshaps S
charriot thher- it D, B, tsher•sat S
charrioteer tshæritiir $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, tshersootiir $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
chart kxart B, S
charter thewertir B , thweer-tor S
chasm kes•m B, kez•m s
chasten tshest $\cdot$ in $B$, tsheest'n S
chastiscment tshæstaiz mint B , tshres'tizment $S$
charlatan tshær-litin B , tshæærlætien S charcoal tshar-kol B, tsheer-kool S
Cherubim Tsheriubim D, B, Tsheriubim S
chevalice sheræliir• D, sheveliir" S
chew tslum B , tshum tshat S
chicane tshikeen $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, slikeen' S
chicancry tshikeen'ri B , shikee nori S
chicken tshik•n B, tshik•in S
chincra kaimiire B, kaimiire S
china tshin $i$ B, tshee ni S
Chinesc Tshoiniiz• $\mathbf{F}$
chirp tshirp B, tslierp $S$
chives thhoivz B, shaivz S
chocolate tshok•lit B, tshak•olet S
choir kuair D, kair B, keair S
choler koollir B, kal'or S
cholic kal ik B
chord kard B, katard S
chorister kwiristor O, D, kairistir
kar istir B, kuerristar S
chorus kar"as B, koorras S
chough tshof B, S
Christ Kiraist B
christen kris in B , kris'n S
-cial =-shæl 0
-cian $=-\operatorname{shæn} 0$

- cient $=$-shent 0
- cious $=-$ shos 0
circuit ser-kit $O$, sirkiut $B$, ser-kiut $S$
citron sitorn 0 , sitron $B, S$
ciret sivet B, S
civil sivll D, B, sivil S
cuilly sivli B, sivili S
claret kler-it $B$, kler it $S$
Claude klood D
cleanly kliin•li B, kliin-li S
cleanse kliinz B, klenz S
clork klerk B, klæerk S
climb kloim D, B, S
close klooz B, S
closely klos li B, kloos.li S
cloth kloth B, klaath S
clothe kloodh B, S
clothes klooz, B, S
clyster glis'tir B, glis'tor S
cockswain kok'sin 1 , kak'san S
cohere kooнiir. O, B, S
coin kain O, kain B, kaain S
colander kal -endar 0 , kol indər S
cold kould I, koold S
colon kal in 13, koolan S
colonel kar-onel D, kar-nil B, kar-nel S colony kal $\cdot$ ani O , kal•ni $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{Al}} \cdot$ onii S colour kal'ər O, kal'ir B, kal-or S
colt kolt B, koolt S
colter koul'tir B, kool-tor S
columbinc kal•ambain 0 , kol•əmbain B , kal•əmbain S
comb kuum 0, koom D, B, S
combat kəm bæet O, kom•bit B, kəm•bæt S
comfort kom•fort $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
command komaand O , komæænd B , kamænd• F , kəmæænd• S
committee komit-ii B , komit-i S
companion kompren'Jon B , kampæеn'JonS
company kəm•pini $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{m}$-preni S
compass kom•pis B, kom•pes S
competition kampitish on B , kampeetish•n S
compluceney komples $\quad$ insi $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{kample}$-sensi S
complaisance komplizens• B , kampleezæns' S
complete kompliit• $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}$, kampliit• S
completion komplish'on B, kamplii•shon S
compose kampooz B, kampooz S
conceit konsiit- O, B, kansiit•S
conchoil kon-kojid B, kaqk•Aaid S
concise konsaiz - B , kansais• S
conclude konkliud• B, kankliud• S
condign kondzin• B. kandain• S
conduit ken•dit O, D, B, kan•dwit S
coney kan i B, cosy kan ii S
congé kon'dzh $i \mathrm{~B}$, koon'dzhii S
congeries kondzhï•riz B, kandzhii•ruiis S
conic kon-ik B, kan ik S
conjecture kondzhek'tor B, kandzhektshar S
conjure v.n. kon $\cdot \mathrm{dzh}$ r D, B, S
conquer kaqk•or D, koqk•wir B, kaqk•ər S
conscience kon'shinz $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{k}$ an -shens S
conscicutious konsien shas B, kanshenshas S
constable kan•stibl B, kən'stæbl S
construe kon stru B, kan'stor S
contrite kontroit• B, kan'trait S
conversant konver-sint B, kan'tersent kanver'sent S
conversc konvers' konvers' $B$, kanvers' S
coquette kok et B , kooket• S
corn karn B, kaarn S
coroner kronnor D, koronir B, karonər S
corps lerps B, koor S
corse kors B , koors S
cost kast B, S
cotton kot.n B, kat'n S
covenant kov-inent B , kav•eenent S
covey cory kar $i$ B, kari S
coward kou ird B, kau•rd S
cowardice kour dis $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{kau}$-rdis S
Couper Kuu par D
coy koi B, Laai S
coyness kon inis B, katirnis S
couth koutsh B, kautsh S
cough kaf O, D, B, kaf S
could kuud B, kud S
coulter kaul'tar O, B, kaul'tar S
country kan $\cdot$ tri B , kan'tri S
couple kapl B, S
courier kar*ier B, kuurseer S
course koors B, F, S
court kuurt O, koort B, S
courtczan kartizen• O, kartizen• B, kərtizen-S
cousin kəz•n O, kaz•in B, kaz•n S
creature krï'tar O , kriit-sər B , krii•tshər S
Crete Kriit 0
orew kriu B, kruu S
crony kron•i B , kroo'ni S
croup krap B, kruup S
croupade kropeed• B, kruupeed• S
croude kriud B, krund S
cruisc kriuz B, kruuz S
cuchold kak old B, S
cuckow kak nu B, kukuu' S
cucumber kəu komber 0 , kəu kəmbir B,
kau-kəmer S
cuirass kiures• B, kiu'ræs S
cuirassior kiures iir B, S
culture kal'tiur B , kal tshor S
cupborrd kəp-boord $B$, kəb•ərd S
czar zær B, zæær S


## D

damn diem $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
demoscl dæm'sel D , dæm•sil B, dæm•zil S
dance dæens $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
danger dæn dzhir B, dææn dzhər S
daughter $\mathrm{d}_{A A} \cdot \operatorname{tar} \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{AA}} \cdot \operatorname{tir} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{AA}} \cdot \operatorname{tar} \mathrm{S}$
deaf diif 0 , def B, def S
dennery diinrri B, diin'eri S
debauch dibastsh. B, S
dcbarchee deboshii ${ }^{-}$, deboshii B , debooshii• S
debenture diben'tor B , diiben tshor S
debt $\operatorname{det} \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{det} \mathrm{S}$
decade dik'eed B , dek'æd S
deccit disiit. (), B, S
decision disiz'Jon B, diisizh'əu S
decisive disiz iv B, diisai-siv S
deign deen $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
deluge del-adsh B, del-iudzh S
dernier derniir B, dernjeer* S
desert desalit deziort l, dezert S
deserve dizærv dizerv B , dizerv S
despotic dispot ik B, despat $\cdot \mathrm{ik}$ S
destroyed distraid B , distrajid F , distranid. S
devil derl D, B, S
devious devias B , dii vjos S
diamond doi mond $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{dai}_{\mathrm{A}}$ mond S
different difrint B , dif.cerent S
diocesan daiosis'en B , daias'cesen S
diphthong dif thaq 13, dip'thaq S
dirge dar dzhii O, dirdsh B, derdzh S
disech disern• disern• B, dizern• S
discipline dis iplain B , dis'iplin S
discomfit diskom•fit B, diskəm•fit S
discourse diskuurs ( O, diskoors B, S
dishabille dismbiil- B, dismabiil- S
dishevelled disherlid B, dissherl S
diverse dai'vers B, dai'vers $S$
divorce divuurs ${ }^{\circ}$, divors ${ }^{-} \mathrm{B}$, divoors S
dule dul B, dool S
doleful dul•fol B, dool-ful S
dolt dolt B, doolt S
door door $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
drama drem'æ B , dreermæ S
diaught draat 0 , drout B , draut S
droll drol B, drool S
drollery drol ri B, drooleri S
drought drout B, draut S
droughty drout $i \mathrm{~B}$, drau ti S
drunken drok'n B, draqk•n S
drunkenness drak•nis B, draqk•nnis S
duarf diraarf, B, S

## E

-ea- (e, ii) as in xixth century, exeept
in the words cited
eton Eb - a S
elomy ii boni B
Eden li•den 0
Edinburgh Ed•inboro D
effigies cf idzhiz B, efii•dzhees S
effort efort O, cfort B, efoort S
effrontery efron-tri B, efroon-teeri S
egotism ig otizm B, ii gootizm S
e $i=\hat{e}$ in veil, either, key, convey (ii)? D
eighth ceth B , cetth S
either ii $\cdot$ dhar 0 , ai dher $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{F}$, ii $\cdot$ dhar S
eleven ilev'n 0
encore seqkoor- B, aqkoor* S
endearour indii-vor O , endev•r B , indewor S
cngross iugruus ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$, engras B , ingroos. S
enough enof $0, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}$, eenəf $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
enow eniu B , cenau• S
enpassant seq.pesseq- B
enrol enroul $\cdot$ B, inrool. S
enciron invai orn 0 , invai ron $S$
ere iir $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{S}$
eremite er-mait B, ereemait S
eschalot shelot B , shælat $\cdot \mathrm{S}$
eschar skeer B, Esker" S
eschew eshiu• 13, estshuu• S
espatier esprel- Ci B, espæl'Jer S
even iiv'n $0,13, S$
executor cksek •t ir B, Egzek•iutar S
executer eks-ikiutir B
exert egzert B, S
exhoust eksaast B, ekshaast• S
exhort egzart B, egzhant• S
cxit cgz-it B, eks it S
extreme ekstriim 0 , ekstrim. B, ekstriim• S
eyre oir B , cer S

## F

fabric fee brik B, febrik S
fulchion feel-shin B, faAl'tshon S
falcon faal kin B, faak'n S
farther ferdir B, feerrdher S
furthing fæerer diu B, fæær-dhiq S
fusten fiest'n B, fes'n S
fatal feet-l B, fee-tel S
futher fexedhir B, fæer dher S
fathom fed•om B, fredh $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ S
fatigue feetig* B, fretiig. S
fault faalt B , faat S
feodary fii dori (), fii deeri B, fiu dæri S
foofee feffii 0 , fiifii• B , feffii S
fetid fit il B, fet-id S
few fiu B, F, S
fexel fiu $i \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
fierce fers B, fers S
fire faior O , fair B, fair S
first farst B, S
flagon flxg•in $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}$, flxg•on S
flea flii 0, B, S
flood flad $0, B$
flue fliu B , flun S
flook fliuk B, fluuk S
flaunt flasut B, flent S
fold fould B , foold S
foliage fol- Jidsh B, foo lowdzh S
folio fol.je B , foo looo S
folk fok B, fook S
foot fat D, B, fut S
foree fuurs O , fors B , foors S
ford ferd 0 , ford B , foord S
forge fuurdzh (), fordsh B, foordzh S
forl fark B, faark S
form furm $0, \mathrm{f}_{\text {arm }} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{f}$ Aarm S
forth fuurth 0 , foorth $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
fought foot 0 , fat B, fast S
foul foul B, faul F, S
four foor B, S
forerth furth O, foorth B, S
fragile frecedzhil B, fredzh $\cdot$ : S
fragraut fresergrint B , free-grient S
frequent adj frik•wint B , frii•k $w$ eut S
friend friind 0 , freud $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
front front 13, frant $S$
frost frast B, S
full ful B, S
fulsome fol-som B, S
furniture, for-nitar $0, \mathrm{~B}$, for"nitshor S
further for 'dir 3, far"dhor S
fiusil fiurzil B, fiuzii• S
future fiu tor B , fiu'tshar S

## G

gallant adj. gæl int B , gælænt S
gallant n. gælænt B, S
gallows grel. $\cdot \mathrm{s} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
gaol (GOal in O) dzheel O, B, S
gap giep $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
gape gææр $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
garden gær-dn D, gæær•din $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
gauge geedzh D, gasdsh B, geedzh S
gentian dzhen•shin B, dzen•tshæn S
George dzhardsh B, dzhaardzh S
Ghent Grut D
ghost guust O , goost $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
gibbous dzhib•es B , gib•os S
gill dzhil B, S
gills gilz B, S
girl gerl B, gerl S
glebe gliib $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
glede gliid $0, \mathrm{~S}$
glue gliu B, S
gnat net D, B, S
gnaw nax D, B, S
gold guuld B, S
gone gon $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}$, gan S
gossip gas•әp 0, gos•ip B, gas•ip S
gouge grudzh 0 , gundzh S
Gough Gof D
gourd guurd 0, gourd B, guurd S
govern gav'in B , gov'arn S
government govirmint B , gavərument S
grand græend B , grend S
grandeur greend'Jor B, green•dzhor S
grange greendzh D, S
grant græænt $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
grass grees $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
great. griit 0 , greet $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
groat grext B, grast S
grocer gras'ir B, groo'sar S
group gruup B, S
groveling grəv-liq 0 , grav•liq B, grav-liq S
guerdon gwer den O, gwer dan S
guttural got iuril B, gat iurel S
gymnastic gimnæs'tik $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{dzhimnæs'tikS}$

## H

$h$-mute in honorr, honotrable, herb, heir, honest, Tumble, D
habitual нeebit-iuil B, uæbit iuæl S
haft нææft B, нæft S
half hasf 0 , нжæf B, S
halfperny нес'pini $B$, нее‘peni $S$
hallelujah нæliliu•dzhæ B, нæleeluu•эæ S
handkerchief нænd•kirtshir B, нæq'kertshif S
handsel нæn'si1 B, C
harlequin нær-likin B , нæær-lekiin S
haste Heest D, B, S
hasten Hees tn D, B, S
haunch (havch in 0), Haansh 0, B, нæntsh S
haunt haant B , harnt haint S
hautboy Hoo boi B, noo bati S

heart нært O , нæært $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
heaven Hev•n O, D
height нeet O, B, нait S
heinous нее 'nas B , ніi пия S
heir eer $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
hemorrhoids em•roidz B, нem•oorasidz S
her нәr B, S
herb erb D, B, merb S
herbage er-bidsh B, her-bidzh S.
herbal er-bil B, her-bæl S
heve niir $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
heritable er $\mathbf{r}$ itibl B , ner $i$ tobl S
hero hir"o B , нií roo S
hezoine nir'oin D , yer'ooin S
heroism нiroizm B, HEr'ooizm S
heron Hir'on B, nern S
heterogeneal net rrogen ixel 0 , нetrodzhin•sil B, uet erodzhii•næel S
high нәі $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}$, наі S
hoard (HoRD in 0 ), hәrd 0 , Hoord $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
Holborm Hoo barı O, D
hold nould B, hoold S
honest on ist B, andist S
honey нәп $\uparrow i \mathrm{~B}$, нәп ${ }^{\text {i }} \mathrm{S}$
honour on $\cdot \mathrm{ir} \mathrm{B}$, All.or S
host hest B, Hoost B
hostler ost lizr B, As'lar S
hough нәf D , Hak S
housewife нəz if B , нәz wif S


luge niudsh B, uiudzh S
humble әm•b'l D, $1 ə \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{bl} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{әm} \mathrm{bl} \mathrm{S}$
humor iu'mar B, S
hиzа нәдææ• B, S
hyепа нді епæ B , наіјіі•иæ S

## I

idiot id•Jat B , id・コ大 S
impugn impэq. B, impium. S
incisive insiz iv B, usaisiv S
indict indait $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, indait S
indictment indait'ment D
injure in dahar B , S
inspires inspai arz O , inspairz B , inspairz' S
instead instiid B , insted. S
invalid adj. invel id $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
invalid n. inveliid 13, s
inveigh invee. 0 , invii B , invee. S
inveigle invii-gl B , iuvee gl S
iron эi orn $0, \mathrm{D}$, ขirn B , ai'arn 's
is iz $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{S}$
Isxac $\operatorname{lig}^{i} z æ \mathrm{D}$
isle oil B, sil S
issuc is in I , is shou S
isthmus ist mos B , is mos S

## J

James Dzhiimz 0
jount dzherent B, dzhæut S
japan dzherpien $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, dzhæpæen S
jeopardy dzhepordi $O$, dzhepriddi $B$, dzhepordi s
jowel dzhuuril B, S
John Dzhon J
join dæhoin 0 , dzhoin B , dzhain S
joint dzhaint O , dzhoint B , dzhaint S
jointure dzhoin tor B, dzhasin'tshor S
jole, joll dzhoul B, dzhool S
jolt dzhoult B, dzhoolt S
jostle dzhas l B, S
juice dzhums B, S
juncture dzhaqk'tor B , dzhaqk tshər S
June Dzhuun B, S
justle dzhas-l B, dzhas'l S

## K

kali kee•lai B, kee-li S
key kii $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
kilu kil O, D, B, S
lenaze neer $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{S}$
knoll nool nəul O , nal S

## L

lanch latash $O$, lexensh $B$, lantsh $S$
lanyuage lieq widsh B , læq•wedzh F , læq.gwidzh S
lath lieth B, lexeth S
laudanum las dinom B, lad ænom $S$
laugh laf $0, D$, leaf $B$, laf S
laundry lavdiry lewen dri B, len•dri S
laurel lastril B, laril S
learning leter-niq B, larn $\quad i q \mathrm{~F}$, lern•iq S
lerce lev $\cdot$ il $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{l}$ l: $\mathrm{w} \cdot$ is
lecture lek tor O, lekt•ar B, lek'tshar S
leeward lii-ward B , liu ard S
leisure lee zhor O , leez Jar B , lezh $\cdot \mathrm{mr} \mathrm{F}$, liǐhors
leopard lepord O, lep ird B, lepord S
lessee (Leansee in O) liisii• O, lesii• B, S
lessor (leassor in O) liisor- 0 , les ar $S$
listen lis'n B, S
lientemant liiutenrent 0 , liuten int $B$, liften'ent S
loath hath B, looth S
louthe loudh 13, S
loin loin $($, loin $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{l}$ atain S
London Lon'an B
lost lost 13, hast S
lough lof O, lakS
Tustring liu'striq 1 , lintstriq S

## II

machine mæ.hiin. D, B, S
magazine mæegæziin' $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
malign mælain B, mælain ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$
malkin maAl-kin $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{maA} \cdot k$ in S
mall manl B, med S
mulmsey mæe'msi B , mææm'zi S
maniac mænoi æk B , mee nsæk S
mare mecar 0 , meer $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
marine meriin $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
mareschal mær-shæl D , mer shil B , mewrshel S
manger mana dzhar 0 , meen•dzhir $B$, meen $\cdot d z h \neq \mathrm{S}$
mantuu mæn'to B , man'tæ S
many man $i$ B, men i S
marchioness meær-tshsonis B , mæærtshonis S
marriage mær idzh D, B, S
mash (measin in 0 ) miish 0 , mæsh $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ mass mes $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
meacock mii kak 0 , mii-kak S
meducine med'sin O, B, S
medioerity midsiok'riti B , meedzhakriti S
memoir mimoir B , meematir mii-mwats S
mere miir $0, B$, meer $S$
miniature min ieetiur $B$, minitshor $S$ minister min istir $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{m}$ in istar S
mimute adj. moiniut B , minint S
minute n . min at $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{min}$ it S
misery mizri B , miz $\quad$ ori S
misprision mispriz.an B, misprizh $\cdot \mathrm{n} \mathrm{S}$ mistress mistris $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
moil moil 0 , mail B , masil S
moiety moo iti B, masi eeti S
Monday Mandi B, Man dee S
Mommouth Man moth D
monsieur monsiur B
moor moor $0, B, S$
more mooar 0 , moor, S
most muust O , most B , moost B
mould mould B , moold S
monlt moult B, moolt B
move mor mulur 0 , muur $D, B, S$
mow il. mou B, mau S
mushroom mash ruun B , mash•ruum S

## N

natural net iuril B, net'urael F, netsharel S
nature neetor 0 , neet sor 13 , nee tishor S
navy ner-il3, neer-i S
meigh nii ll, nee S
neighbour nee bor $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
neither needh er $O$, traidhir $B$, nii dher $S$
new nin B , num F , nius S
nuncio nen sho $B$, nanrshoo $S$ [S
nuptial nop-shiel 0 , nəp•shil B, nəp•shæ

Chap. X. § 3. pronouncing yocabulary of xvili cent. 1079

## 0

oblige oblii•dzh• D, ablaidsh• abliidsh• B ooblaidzh oobliidzh•S
oblique əbliik• B , ooblaik S
obscene absiin• O, B, Absiin-S
oecasion okeez'Jon B, akee'zhon S
of or $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{Av} \mathrm{S}$
off of $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{Af} \mathrm{S}$
oil oil O , ail B , atil S
ointment pint'meut $O$, pint'mint $B$, Aaint ment S
once wreus B, wans S
one on won D , wæn B , won F , wan S
one-eyed wæn-ai $\cdot \mathrm{id} \mathrm{B}$, wan-Aid S
oneness wæn'nis B , wan'nis S
onion əก•ว่ B, S
only on $\cdot l$ l B , oon lli S
ordeal Ard•Jil B, Aar ${ }^{\text {dJæl } S}$
ousel әu'zel O, oursil B, uu'zl S
oyer arair B, Asi•ar S
oyes oo'Jis B, oosis' S

## P

palm paam 0, pæelm B, pææт S
palsy pasl-zi B, pallzi S
parliament preer-liment D , pæer-limint
B, preer-liment S
passed prest $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{S}$
patent pee tint B , pret-ent S
patentee pretentii 1 , pretentii• S
path paxth B, S
perfect pər•fit $D$, perfet $B$, pərfekt F,
perffits S
peremptory perem•tori B, perremtori S
perfection parfek-shon D, B, perfek-
shən S
perfectly perffitli B, perfektli S
perform parfarm B, $\mathbf{F}$, perfaarm• S
periwig per iwig B, per-iwig S
perjure per dzhor B, S
perverse pervers pervers• B , pervers* S
pervert pervart pervert B , pervert• S
pestle pest l B, pestll S
petal pit•el B, petæel S
petard pit•erd B, peo'teererd S
phalanx feelæqks B, fee leqks S
Pharaoh Feer:o D
philosophy failos•ofi B, filas Afi S
phlegin flitim D, flem B, S
phlogiston floodzhis'ton B , floogis'toon S phethisis tiz iz B, ftlai $\cdot$ sis S
piazza раіæzя B, pi iez'e S
picture pik'tar O, pikt Jar B, pik•tshar S pier piir B, S
pierce piirs 0 , pers piirs $B$, pers $S$
pin pin B, pins
placurd pleekieerd• B, plekered• S
plait pleet B, S
plea plii O, B, S
plough plou l', plau S
point print O , print B, paint S
poison pai•nn 0 , poiz'an B, paAi•z S
police pal'iis B, pooliis' S
poll pool paul 0, pool B, S
pomegranate pamgræn et 0 , poomgræn•-
eet B, pamgren'et S
pommel pamel D, pam•il B, S
pomp pimp B, S
poniartl poin•Jird B, pan'Jerd S
poor poor O , puur B, S
porch poortsh B, S
porpoise por"poiz prr"pos B, patr-pas S
port purt O, part B, poort S
post puust 0 , past B, poost B
posture post-iur B, pias'tshar S
pother padh 2 r B, padh:ar B
poultice paul tis O, poul•tis B, pool•tis S
poultry paul'tri O, poul'tri B, pool'tri S
pour paur 0 .
precise prissiz B, priisais' S
premier prem iir B, prem-siir S
prescienec pris oiins B, prii'shens S
pretty pret $i \mathrm{~B}$, pritis
process pros'es B , pras'is S
profile proofail- B, proofiil•S
prologue prol'og O, B, praliog S
prove prov pruw 0 , pruav $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
prowe proul B, praul S
prude priud B, pruud S
psalm saam 0 , sææm B, S
ptisan tai'sæn B, tizen'S
pudiling pud in B , pud $i q \mathrm{~S}$
puisue piurizn B, piurni S
pumice piu mis B, S
pure piurr 0 , piur $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
pursue parsiu• B, S
pursuivant por"sivent B , par'swivent S
push push B, S
put pat B, put S

## Q

quadranglckweedreq.g'l B, kwædreq.gl S
quadrant $\mathrm{kwee} \cdot \mathrm{dr}:$ ent $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{kwee} \cdot d$ rent S
quadrille kwee•dril B, kedril' is
quadruped kwedriuped B, S queff kweef B, S
quality kwel 'iti B, kwel-iti, kwal-iti persons of high rank, S
qualm k wasm O , kwaslm B , kwerem S quandury kweu deeri B , kwandeeri S quantity kwen'titi B , kwarn'titì S quantum kwien t tom IS, S quarvell kwer"il B, kwar"il S quary kwer-ill, kwan"i S quart kwart $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
quarter kwasr-tir B, kwasrtor S
quash kwaish B, kwash S
quarto kwier to B , kware"too S quatrain kwatreen 1; kwar-trion s quay kii 0 , kwee 13 , kee S
quean krin B, kween S
quen kwiin 13, S
question kwest'son B , kues'tshon F , kwes tshan S
quire kair B, kwair S
quoif koif B, kwatif S
quoit koit B, kwasit S
quoth kwoth B, kooth S

## R

ragout reeguu $\cdot \mathrm{B}$, reguu• S
raillery ree $\cdot$ liri B , rel-eri S
raisin reez'u 0 , reesin B , ree'zu S
rant reent B, rent S
rapicr ree'piir B, ree-psiir S
rapine rere'pin B, rep-in S
rapture ræp'tiur B , ræp tsh . S
ratio resh 0 B , ree shoo S
reason ree'zon $B$, rii'zn $S$
receipt reseet resiit• 0 , risiit B , riisiit• S
recipe res ipi B , res ipee S
reign reen $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
rein reen $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
renard renæærd• B , ren•erd S
renderous ren-divunz B, randeeruu S rere riiior 0 , reer B
reserved risærv-id riserv-id B, rizervd• S resin rez in $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
resocerce risours' B , riisuurs' S
revert rivert rivert 13 , rivert' S
ribband rib-in $D$, ribren $B$, ribin $S$
rigging rig•in $B$, rig•iq $S$
roquelaure rok $\cdot \mathrm{cloo} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{rak-loo} \mathrm{~S}$
roll rool roul O , raul B, rool S
romance romens' B, S
Rome Ruum Rom O, Ruum B
ronion ran'Jou $B$, ran'Jon $S$
y.ost ruust 0
rouge randzh 0 , roudsh B , ruuzh S
rough raf O, D, B, S
rulc riud B , ruul S
ruse riuz B
rustle ros $1 \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
ruth rath B, ruuth S

## S

saffion swforn $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}$, sæfron S sulmon saa mon O, sem'ou D, B, S salt saalt B, S
salve satav 0 , swer $B$, selv S
sausagc sæer sidsh $B$, stes idzh $S$ seald skasld D, B, S
searee skers 0 , skeers B , skers S scath sketh, B, sketh S scene $\sin 0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
secptic skep tik D, B, skeptik S schedule sed-iul B, sedzh-uul S scheme skiim O, B, S schism sizm D, B, S
scoff skaf B, skaf S
scold skould B, skoold S
seotch skootsh skatsh B, skatsh S
serivener skriv-nər 0
scroll skrool skroul O, skroul B, skrool S
scourge skordzh (), skoordsh B, skərdzh S
scrutuire skriutoor B, skruatoor* S
sea sii $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
seamstress siim stris B , sems'tris S
searee sers B
scize siiz $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
sensuous sen siuas B , sen shuàs S
serene siriin• 13, F
sergeant sær dzhint B , swer dzhent S
servant sær-vint servint $B$, ser-vent $S$
severe siviir $\cdot \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
sew siu did sow O , soo does sew $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
sewer shoor B , siubr waiter, shoor
watercourse, soo or one who sew's S shalt shaalt B, shælt S
shawm (shalm in 0 ), sham $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
shepherd shep ird B, shep ord S
shicrd sheerd B, sherd S
shew shiu did show O , shoo docs show $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
shive shiir $0, \mathrm{~B}$, shair S
shirt short B, S
shoe shuu B, S
shorn shuurn 0 , sharn B , shatrn S
short shart B, shaart S
should shuud B, shud S
shoulder shaul'dər O, shəuld ir B, shool-dər S
shrew shriu O , shriu B , shruu S
sigh saith, better sai B, sair S
siek sik B, sik S
sign sain D, B, sain B
signior sil $\cdot$ inior D
signiory sen•Jori B , sin•Joori S
$\sin \sin 1, \sin S$
since sins 13, S
sirocco sairbl• $B$, sirak 00 S
sirrah sære 0 , sərie $B$, sær"e $S$
sirup sirə $\boldsymbol{p} \mathrm{B}$, sдrəp S
sixth sikst B, siksth S
skeleton (sceleton in D), skel-cton D, skel-itan B, skeliton S
slander slecen dir 13, slen dor S
slant slawnt B, slent S
sleight slait B, slait S
slough slaf 1 B, slau S
slover slay in $B$, slav $\sim$ n
smouddering smoul-diriq B, smool-deriq S
sojoum soo dahorn B, S
sold sould If, snold S
solder sad $\cdot$ ir B, sad $ә$ - S
soldier sould• Jir B, sool dzhor S
somata sontertie B , soonee tie S
soot sot D, B, S
sootiness sat inis B, sat-inis $\mathbf{S}$
sooty sat $i B$, suutt S
soul sool B, S
sous suus B , saus S
southerly sadh•irli B , sadh $\cdot$ orli S
sovereign sov-əreen $D$, savrin $B$, səv•eren S
sphere sfiir O, B, S
spinet spinet• $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
sport spuurt 0 , spoort B, S
squab skwæb B, skwab S
squabble skwæb•l B, skwab•l S
squadron swæe dron B, skwaA drən S
squalid skwel-id B, skwal-id S
squalor skwee-lor B
squander skwaan dir B, skwal dor S
squash skwath B, skwash S
squirrel skwir $i$ B, skwerril S
staff stref B, S
stalk staak B, S
stanch staaush 0 , stæænsh $B$, stæntsh $S$
stiletto stri leto B , stilet.oo S
stomach stom•æk B, stəm $\cdot \mathrm{k}$ S
stomacher stəm'ætshər D, stom'ætshir
B, stəm•idzhər S
stood stuud B, stud F, S
stover star $\cdot$ ar 0
strange streendzh D , streendsh B , streendzh S
stranger straan dzhar 0 , streen $\cdot d z h i r$
B , streendzh $\cdot$ or S
stroll stroul B, strool S
subtile sat•l D, B, sab•til S
subtle set•l S
sudden sad $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ B, sad $\cdot$ in S
sudorific siudoorif $\cdot \mathrm{k} \mathrm{B}$, shuudoorif ik S
sudorous siu doras B, shuu dooras S
sue shuu $B$, suu $S$
suet shuu $\cdot i$ B, S
suety shuu iti B , shuu-iti S
sugar shuu-gir B, shug-ar S
suicide shuu iszid B, shuu isaid S
suit shuut B , suut S
suitable shuut $\cdot i$ bl B , suut•ebl S
suite swiit S
suitor shuut'or B, suu'tor S
suitress shumetris $B$, suu tris $S$
Sunday Son $\cdot \mathrm{d} i \mathrm{~B}$
super-siu-pir- B, shuu-per-S
superable siu piribl B , shuu'perebl S
supcrb siuperb• B, shuuperb• S
superior siupir $\imath$ ər $B$, shuupii rsər S
supernal sinper nil $B$, shuuper nel $S$
supine siupain. $B$, shuu pain $n$. shuupain ${ }^{\circ}$ adj. S
supinity siupai•niti $B$, shuupin $\cdot i t i$ S
support, sə puurt O, sэpoort' B, S
supra-siu-pri- B, shuu-pre- S
supremacy siuprii misi B, shuuprem æesi
S
supreme siupriim• O, B, shuupriim•S
sural siuril B, shuiræl S
surance siurins B , shuurens S
sure shuur $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
surtout sortout• B, sərtuut• S
suture shuu tar B, shuu'tshar S
swab sweb B, swab S
swaddle swed 1 B , swad•l S
swag swæg B, S
swallow swat loo B, swal.oo S
swam swem B, S
swamp swatmp B, swamp S
swan swaan B, swan S
swap swaap B, swap S
sward swated B, S
swarm swantm B, S
suarth swarth B, S
swash swatsh B, swash S
swath sweth B
swear sweer $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
swoon suun D, B, S
swarm swarm B, S

## T

tabard tec berd B
talk taAk B, S
task tresk B, S
tea tii $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
tear $\begin{gathered}\text { จ. teer } 0, S\end{gathered}$
tenet tin et B, tii•net S
tenable tin $\cdot i b l \mathrm{~B}$, tii•næbl S
tew tiu B
their dheer $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
there dheer $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
these dhiiz 0, B, S
thought thoot O , that B , that S
thorsand thau'zond 0, thau'zend F
threepence thrip ins B, thripens S
threepenny thrip ini B , thripeni S

- tial $=-$ shæl 0
- -tiate $=-$ sheet 0
- tion $=-\operatorname{sh} 2 \boldsymbol{0}$
tissue tis'iu B, tish•u S
toil tail 0
toilet toi lit B, taAi-lit S
told tould B , toold S
toll tool toul 0 , taul B, tool S
tomb tuum B, S
tonsure ton siur B, tan shar S
torn tuurn O , tarn B , toorn S
touch teutsh O , totsh $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
tough tof O, D, B, S
towr tour B, tuer S
torpet tuupii $\cdot \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
tournament tarn emint B , tnur-næment S
tournay tor nee B, tuur nee S
touse touz B, tallz S
transient trienz•sint $B$, træen'shent $S$
treneher trenshir I, tren'tshər S
troll troul B , trool S
trough trof $0, D, B, \operatorname{traf} S$
true triu B, truu F, S
truth truuth B, S
tucslay tiuz di $\mathbf{B}$, tshuuz dee S
tulip tiullip B, tshuulip S
tumid tirmid B, tshuurmid S
tumour tiu'mor B , tshuu mor S
tumult tiu'molt B, tshuu'molt S
tume tiun B , tshunn S
tutor tiu'tor B, tshuu tor S
tyrant toi rint $B$, tairrent $S$
twelvemonth twel month B , twel month S
twelvepence twel-pins B , twel-pens S
twelvepemay twel peni B , twel peni S
twopence top pins B, top ons S
typify tai pitoi $B$, tip-ifi $S$
tyramnize tairrenaiz B, ter"enaiz S
tyrannons tairreuas B , terrenos S
tyranny tireni B, ter"eni S


## U

union iun sən $B, S$
unlearned anleærn $i d \mathrm{~B}$, aulærnd• F , onler-nid S
untrue antruu - B, S
uphold әрнәuld $\mathbf{B}$, әрноold S
usquebauy $h$ oskibaA. B, askweebæer. S
usual iuz'Jil B, iuzhuel S
usurer iu'zorir B, iu'zhərar S
userious iuziurias B , inzhuurras S
uscuy iuz ori B , iuzhorii S

## V

vacuous vec kiuas $B$, vak iuas $S$
valet vel-it B, vel-et val-e S
Vaughan Vasn D
vein veen $0, B, S$
venison reuzza $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{D}$, ven isou S
rerdiet ver-dikt $D$, ver-dit B , ver•dikt S
verjuice siur dzhuus $B$, verdzhuus $S$
vormicelli vermisel $i \mathrm{~B}$, vermitshel ii S vicious vii shas B, S
victualler vit-lar D , vit-lir B , vit-lar S victuals vit ll $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
village vil'rdsh B , ril edzh F , vil idzh S villain vil in B , vilen F , vilen S virile vairail $B$, vairail $S$ virility vairil iti B virtue virtiu B , vertshuu S viscount voi kount l, vai kaunt S voyage voo $\cdot \mathrm{idsh} \mathrm{B}$, rasiedzh S

## W

wabble wieb $\cdot 1 \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{wab} \cdot 1 \mathrm{~S}$
wad wad B, wad S
waft wæft B, S
weflage wasftidsh B, wafftedzh S wainseot wen'skat $O$, ween'skat $B$, Wenskat S
walk wak 13, S
wallep wal op B, walop S
wallow wel-oo B , wal.oo S
ualnut wasl not B, S
wan wæn $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
wand wand B, wand S
wander wann dir B, wan dar S
want waant B , want S
wanton waanton B , wan'ton S
war whar O, B, S
wurd ward O, B, S
varm warm 0, B. S
warn warn O, B, S
warrant was'rint $B$, warent $S$
warren waren O, warrin B, warein S
was waaz B, waz S
wash wash B, wash S
wasp waasp B, wiesp S
vast wast B , wast S
waste weest $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
wateh watsh 0 , watsh B, watsh S
water wat tar O, D, waA'tir B, waA'tor
S
wattle wæt'l B , wat $\cdot 1 \mathrm{~S}$
weapon wiip $\mathrm{n} 0, \mathrm{~B}$, wep'n S
wear weer $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
Wednesday Wenz dee D, Wenz di B,
Wenz dee S
weight weet $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$
were weer 0 , wer $B$, wer $S$
where wheer O, B, S
whistle whis $\cdot 1$ B, S
who нuu B, S
whole whool B, F, Hool S
whom нuum B, S
whore hoor $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}$, huur S
whose huuz B, S
why whai B, hwai S
windpipe win paip B, waindpaip S
windlass win lis B , win les S
windmill win'mil B, waind'mil S
withhold with
wold woold B, S
wolf wuulf $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{B}$, wulf S
woman wam'au 0 , wom•in B , wum'on S
womb woom D, wuum B, S
women wime in B, S
won won B, wan S
wont wont B , wunt S
woo wuu B, S
uord wuurd ward 0 , word $B, S$
work wuurk wark 0 , work B, S
world wuurld warld O, world B, S
worm wuurm worm 0 , worm B, S
worry wur $i$ O, wər $i \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
worship wur-ship 0, wor-ship B, S
worst wuurst warst 0 , woorst B , worst S
worsted wnur'sted worsted 0 , war"stid
B, wustid S
wort wart $0, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{~S}$
worth wuurth worth O, B, S
uould wund B, uuld F, wud S
wound wound O, B, wuund S
wrath rath 0 , reeeth B, rasth S wrestle res 1 B , rest S
wrought root 0 , rat B, rast S

## Y

yacht jast B, Jat S
yea sii 0 , , see $B$, ,
yearn siirn 0 , Jern $B$, Jern $S$
yeast Jest B
yelk selk B, sook S
yeoman Jom reen 0 , Jem'eu B, jem•n S yes Jes B, Jis S
yield siild B, S
yolk solk B, sook S
yule suul B

## Z

zealot zii 1 lot 0 , zel $1 \cdot$ t E, zel $\cdot$ ət S zenith zin ${ }^{\text {tith }} \mathrm{B}$, zii'nith S

## Select Rhymes of the Eighteenth Century.

The following rhymes from poets of the xviut century have been collected from Walker and Prof. Haldeman (suprà p. 1035). The names and dates of the writers are:

| Beattie | $1735-1803$ | Falconer | $1730-1769$ | Lyttelton | $1709-1773$ |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Broome | $1699-1745$ | Fenton | $1683-1730$ | E. Moore | $1712-1757$ |
| Churchill | $1731-1764$ | Gay | $1688-1732$ | Pope | $1688-1744$ |
| Cotton | $1707-1788$ | Gifford | $1757-1826$ | Smollett | $1721-1771$ |
| Cowper | $1731-1800$ | Goldsmith | $1728-1774$ | Somerville | $1692-1742$ |
| Croxall | d. 1752 | Gray | $176-1771$ | Tiekell | $1686-1740$ |
| Darwin | $1731-1802$ | Hoole | $1727-1803$ | Warton | $1728-1700$ |
| Eusden | d. 1730 | Johnson | $1709-1781$ | Watts | $1674-1748$ |

It must not be forgotten that these writers were greatly influenced by the pronunciation of the xwrith century, in which some of them were born, and to which their parents all probably belonged, and hence they might be apt to consider those rlymes which wonld have been correct in their parents' mouths eren more correct than others which they now permitted themselves. It was a century of transition for $e a$ in especial, and probably also for $a$, the first travelling from (ee) to (ii), and the second from (ææ) to (ee). "Glorious John" Dryden, who died at the begimning of the century, was looked upon as a model of versification until Pope gained the ascendant, but Pope was certainly materially influenced by Dryden's usages. Bearing this in mind, we must expect the rhymes to present nearly the same character as those in the preceding century, and our examination of Tennyson and Moore (pp. $858-862$ ) shews how potent the influence of the xvin th century writers still remains.

The arrangement is therefore the same as for Dryden, p. 1034, and the xtirth century, suprà p. 1036. The numbers point out the same groups as in those cases.

1. Car war, Pope. regards rewards, Gay. far war, Darwin. afar war, Falconer. star war, Beattie. care war, I'ope. square war, Deruin. are war, Couper. safe laugh, Pope. glass place, Pope. mast plac'd, I'ope. take track, Pope. past waste, Pope-would probably never lave been used, had they not been an heritage from the preceding century. But Pope may have had au antique pronunciation.
2. As ai and a long had both beenme (ee), these rhymes need not be noticed.
3. Wear star, Pope. plain man,

Pope. remain'd land, Pope. air star, Tope. far air, Johnson. appear regular, Pope. err singular, l'ope-minst also scek their justification in the usages of the xyinth century. The prommciation of the preceding or succecding century only renders the rhymes worse.
4. Waves receives, lope; take speak, Tope; shade mead, lope; race peace, E. Moore ; were now perfect rbymes, and past feast, E. Moore, was apparently justified on the authority of the preceding, although it had long ceased to have its old meaning (ace, ec), and had
become ( $x$, ee) or ( $x$, ii). Obey tea, Pope; away tea, lope; convey sea, Warton; fuil'd reveal'd, Gay; display sea, Gay; airs, cars, Gray; sphere bear, Iope; sphere there, Pope; ear repair there, lope; were all perfect, although the (ii) sound had begun to be acknowledged for (ca, e). But: there transfer, Fenton; here refer, Pope; were fear, Eusten; steer character, Pope; field held, Pope; were remnants of the xuith century usage. Heath death, Fope; death heath, Beattie; drest feast, Pope; break neck, Pope; yot complete, Cotton; decay'd fled, Lyittelton; were all rhymes of a long and short rowel (ee, e) ; and: feel mill, Pope; ship dcep, Falconer ; rhymes of long and short (ii, i), doing duty for (ii, i). Perhaps: reccives gives, Pope; steals hills, Warton; were (ce, i) standing for (ee, e), and: stretch beech, Gray, was a confusion of the two last eases.
5. No instances of $(e, i)$ have been collected; but they were no doubt sufficiently common.
6. With: high pillory, Somerville; fry jealonsy, Pope; buy dispensary, Pope; sky company, Pope; we may class: eyes rise precipice, Tope; rise precipice, Pope; wise inconsistencies, Pope; delight wit, Pope; revive live, Pope. But: winds finds, Croxall, is justified by the still persistent "poetie" pronunciation of wind as (waind). We of course find also: free liberty, Pope, and many such instances.
7. Jnined mankind, Pope. refin'd join'd, Tickell. join divine, Pope. join line, Pope, Churchill, Falconcr. shine join, Beattic. thine join, Lyttelton. join thine, Gifford. soil smile, Falconer. guile toil, Smollett. smile toil, Johnson. smiles toils, Hook. These were in accordance with received pronunciation, but: vice destroys, Pope, seems to be a liberty. Weight height, Pope, Falconer; was regular as (weet, neet).
8. Such rhymes as: none orrn, Pope, which was perfect, or else ( 00 , oon), seem to have led poets to use : known town, Gay; brow grow, Pope; brow wee, Croxall; vows woes, Pope; power store, Beattie; own town, Iope; adores pow'rs, Pope, although they were (oo, oul) at best. We have also (00, o) treated as if it were a rhyme of a long and short vowel, in: sun upon none, Pope; lost boast, Iope; show'd trod, l'ope; gross moss, lope; coast tossed,

Faleoner; thought wrote, Broome. Also the old rhymes of (oo, un) depending upon the still older $(00,00)$ in: took spoke, Tope; boor door, Goldsmith; and even: assure door, Watts. The usual confusions, likewise an old tradition, occur in: blood wood, Pope; blood good, I'ope ; stood blood, Faleoner, Pope; mood flood, Warton; wood blood, Gay; wood blood, Darwin; brood flood, Cotton. And to the same tradition is perhaps due the rhymes of eome with (oo) or (uu): home come, lope; doom come, Pope; dome come, Pope; come room, Pope; come tomb. IVarton; bloom come, Gitford. The following rhymes were perfect: doom Rome, Pope; tomb Rome, Darwin; gone stone, Croxall; honse vous, Pope. Perhaps: house sous, Churchill-where sous is the French (sul)-was only meant to be absurd; still it may have been in use as a slang term at the time.
9. No instances of (eu, in) or (iu, uu) have been noted, but the latter were not all uncommon.
10. Groves loves, Pope. grove love, Johnson. rove love, Smollett. grove above, Gay. throne begun, Pope. moves doves, Pope. prove love, Pope. fool dull, Pope. These seem to have held their gronnd from pureconvenience, as did also: flung along, Pope; long tongue, Pope; songs tongues, Watts. Full rule, Pope, is only a short and a long vowel rhyme (u, uu).

11 The influence of ( r ) is apparent in: horse course, Pope; sort court, Pope ; board lord, Pope; resort court, Pope; borne return, Pope; worn turn, Pope. But in: observe starve, Pope; desert heart, Pope; ermine charming, Gay; we have also a xvir th century tradition.
12. Nature creature, Gay; nature satire, Gay, Gray; fanlt thought, Pope; were perfect rhymes (nee'ter krec'ter sce-ter, fast thast) ; and perhaps in: call equirocal, Pope, the last word was pronounced with (AA) for the occasion, at any rate such rhymes were an ancient tradition, as they were common in Spenser. Even: still suitable, Tope, is half justifiable, as the -ble here is only a -bil obscured. But could: caprice nice, Pope, have ever rhymed as (kæprois', nois) or as (kæpriis', niis)? Of course : eve grave, Warton, was a mere license, and: arms warns, Goldswith, was perhaps meant for an assonauce.

## CHAPTER XI.

## Illustrations of the Pronunciation of English during the Nineteenth Century.

## § 1. Educated English Pronunciation.

On referring to Chapter I., pp. 18 and 19, the reader will see that in thus endeavouring to give an account of the Pronunciation of English at different periods, I have been thronghout thoroughly aware that there was at no time any approach to a uniform pronmciation. On referring again to p. 408, it will be seen that my attempts were really limited to discovering the value of the letters employed, which I beliered to be pretty uniform within the boundaries of England. This value of the letters seems to have been based on the ecclesiastical pronunciation of Latin, and considering that Latin letters were introduced by priests, and that priests were long the only scribes (shewn by our modern use of the word clerk), such a conclusion has some à priori probability. In Chap. VI. it will be seen that the actual diversity of pronunciation gradually orerpowered orthography, which, after the successful phonetic effort of the xvith century in introducing the distinctions $e e, c a$ and $00, o a$, subsided into tradition and printing-office habits. In Scotland indeed an approach to systematic orthography developed itself at the conclusion of the xy th century, and this thenceforth distinctly separates the Scotch from the English orthography. ${ }^{1}$


#### Abstract

1 Suprà p. 410, n. 3, and Mr. Murray's Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland (1873, 8vo., pp. 2.51 ), p. 52, where he says that on "comparing the older extracts from the Brus, preserved by Wyntown, with the later MS. of 1489 ," we find "ai ay, $e i$ ey, yi, oi oy, ui, oui, for the old $a, e$, $i, o, u$, ou, Ags. $i$, , $e, i, o, u .$, And he attributes this to "a defective pronunciation of the diphthongs $a i, c i$, oi, etc., whereby the second vowel was practically lost, and the combination treated as simple long $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{o}$, " referring to a similar custom in Gaelic, and "even where the second vowel is audible, it is not with a distinct $i$ sound as in Eng. ay, oil, ..... but rather an obscure vocal glide, like the $e$ in the words drawer, layest, weighed, sayeth, secst, prayer, and so easily disappearing altogether. The same pronunciation appears to have been given in central and north-eastern Scotlund to the Ags.


and French diphthongs," thus awā-eh for awny, rä-en for rain, chōes for choice, ete., "imperfect diphthongs " which "still characterise the Scotch dialects." Then "ay, oi, ei, being looked upon merely as ways of expressing long $a, a$, $i$, they began to be extended to all words with long vowels, where there had been no original diphthong. . . . Hence the alternative forms mad made thaid mayd mayde, tas tase tais tays, etc., found often in the same page of works belonging to the transition period." No reader of this work should fail to study Mr. Murray's, to which frequent reference must be made in the present ehapter. The diphthongal theory here intimated will come again under consideration, when reviewing the dialectal relations of the vowels, in § 2 , No. 6, iv. below; but as the other dialcets were not literary after the fifteenth century, they did not influence orlhography.

Orthoepists as a rule ignore all this. It would have been impossible to learn from Hart that ai had any other sound in his day than (ee), and jet we know from other sources that (ee) was not even the commonest pronunciation of ai at that time. The Expert Orthographist allowed only four words in ea to have the sound of (ce). No doubt he considered such a sound in other words to shew ignorance or rulgarity; for the "polite" sounds of a past gencration are the bêtes noires of the present. Who at present, with any claims to "eddication," would "jine" in praising the " pinnts of a pieter"? But certainly there was a time when "eddjucation, joyn, poynts, pictsher," would have sounded equally strange.

Moreover in past times we are obliged to be content with a very rough approximation to the sounds uttered. When in the xir th century I write (e), it is possible that speakers may have rather, or may have occasionally, said ( $e, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{b}$ ). My ( 0 ) in the xrith century may hare been ( 0,0 ), my (a) in the xvir th may have been ( $\mathrm{e}, \infty$ ), and so on. But at the present day, with the language in the air around as, surely it must be easy to determine what is said? It is not at all easy. There is first required a power, not acquired without considerable training, of appreciating utterance different from one's own. It is indeed remarkable how unconscious the greater number of persons appear to be that any one in ordinary society pronounces differently from themselres. If there is something rery uncommon, it may strike them that the speaker spoke "strangely" or "curiously," that "there was something odd about his pronunciation," but to point to the singularity, to determine in what respects the new sound differs from their own, baftles most people, even literary men, even provincial glossarists, who apply themselves to write down these strange sounds for others to imitate. At any rate there has been hitherto erinced a general helplessness. both of conception and expression, that shews how much special education is necessary before we can hope for real success in appreciating diversities of utterance.

But this orercome, the mere observation is beset with difficulties. The only safe method is to listen to the natural speaking of some one who does not know that he is observed. ${ }^{1}$ If possible the pronunciation should be immediately recorded in some phonetical system intelligible to the listener, as in palacotype, and the name of the speaker and date should be annexed. This is most conreniently done during the delivery of sermons or lectures. The only objection
${ }^{1}$ This rule is laid down by Klopstock, Ueber die deutsehe Rechtschreibung, Fragmentel über Sprache und Dichtkunst, 1779 , reprinted in his works, and the passage is so curious that 1 here transcribe it in the anthor's own orthography, employing italics for his underlined letters: "I ch babe, nach langem IIcrumhören, gefunden, dasz cu fon äu (oder, wi man scbreiben solte e ü, äü; hirfon hernach)

Leutc fon läutc nicht unterschiden sci. Wär mir in disem Punkte, oder in andern nachuntersuchen wil, mus nieht fragen: Wi man dis oder jenes ausspreche? Sondern är mus zuhören, wi man es ausspricht, weu man niehz dafon weis, dasz darauf acht geqäben wird." Klopstock's Sämmtliche Werke, herausgegeben von A. L. laek und A. R. C. Spindler. Leiprig, 1830, vol. 14, p. 151.
to this course is that a preacher or lecturer knows that his style of speech is liable to be criticized, and he may therefore indulge in rather a theoretical than a natural delivery. This is especially the case with professed orthoepists, whose pronunciatiou will nocessarily labour under the suspicion of artificiality. And again this plan is of course only possible with educated speakers, who are mostly fanciful in their pronunciation. It is never safe to ask such people how they pronounce a given word. Not only are they immediately tempted to "correct" their usual pronunciation, to tell the questioner how they think the word ought to be pronounced, and perhaps to deny that they ever pronounced it otherwise; ; ${ }^{1}$ but the fact of the removal of the word from its context, from its notional and phonetic relation to preceding and following sounds, alters the feeling of the speaker, so that he has as much difficulty in uttering the word naturally, as a witness has in signing his name, when solemnly told to sign in his usual landwriting. Both forget what is their usual habit, because they have long ceased to be conscious of the required offorts in speaking and writing, as in any other ordinary exertion of the museles. I have myself found it extremely difficult to reproduce, for my own observation, the sounds I myself ordinarily utter; and yet I have undergone some training in this respect for many years. Uneducated persons, from whom we thus endearour to elicit dialectal somds, are simply puzzlod, and seldom give auything on which reliance can be placed.

Observations on such sounds are extremely difficult to make. It is only persons of phonetic training who have lived loug among the people, and spoken their language naturally, such as Mr. Murray for Scotch, that have had a chance of acquiring a correct conception of the sounds by hearing them unadulterated, and even then there is danger of their not having been able to throw off their former habits enough to thoroughly appreciate the received English sounds with which they would compare them. ${ }^{2}$ When a stranger goes among the country people, they immediately begin to "speak fine,"

[^3]frequently confounds sounds essentially distinct. This has been a source of great difficulty to myself when endeavouring to collect information respecting English dialects, and is one of the impediments in the way of using a uniform spelling, as glossic, for dialectal purposes. Collecting country words is looked upon as an amusement, not as laying a brick in the temple of science; and, curiously enough, an accurate appreciation of their sounds is one of the last things thought of, and one which few glossarists give themselves any trouble about. Yet it requires great care and much practice, and its neglect renders the glossaries themselves records of unknown words, as for the extinct Forth and Bargy dialect.
or in some way accommodate their pronunciation to his, in order to be intelligible, or grow shy and monosyllabic. An attempt to note their utterances would drive many to silence. It is seldom an investigator is so fortunate as Mr. Nicolas Wyer, whose Dorset experiences I shall have to record. I endeavoured on one occasion to learn something by accompanying a gentleman, resident near Totness in Deronshire, while he was speaking to his own workmen, and listening with all my ears to their replies, noting them from memory immediately on my return to the house. But this is obrionsly a fragmentary, although a comparatively safe, method, and consumes much time. The usual and quickest, but not the safest plan, is to catch a person of education, as a clergyman or surgeon, who has had free intercourse with natives, or else a native born, and collect the sounds from his lips. In the first case, however, they are diluted by false impressions, as when one learns French pronunciation from a German. In the second they are apt to be faded memories, much spoiled by exposure to the light of received pronunciations. It is for these reasons perhaps that we seldom find every worl in a dialectal specimen written phonetically. Many of the little words, which failed to attract attention, are passed over, and of those written phonetically only the most striking parts are indicated, and the writer seeks to deriate (like Mr. Barnes in his second series of Dorset poems) as little as possible from the usual orthography. This is all very well for one who knows the dialect already. For an outsider it is merely tantalising or misleading. ${ }^{1}$

But, eren with phonctic training, and willing and competent teachers, it is difficult to hear the sounds really uttered, if only a short time is at command. We know, by the frequent mishearing of names, or of unexpected words, althongh every sound in them is perfectly familiar, how extremely tronblesome it is to catch new combinations of old sounds. When both sounds and combinations are strange, as in a dialect or foreign language, this difficulty is materially increased. The sounds of language are rery flecting. Each element occupies a rery minute part of a second. Many elements are much hurried orer, and all are altered by combination, expression, pitch, intonation, emotion, age, sex, national formation. We hear as much by gencral effect, rather than by the study of indiridual elements, as we often read a manuscript rather by the look of words than by the forms of their letters. Hence if the language is unknown, both spoken and written words become unintelligible. The ear must have lived among the sounds, to know them instantancously at the most hurried encounter, to be able to

[^4]eliminate individualities and know generalities. One of the great dangers that we run in attempting to give a strange promunciation, is to confuse the particular habit of the individual with the general habit of the district which he represents. Erery speaker has individualities, and it is only by an intimate acquaintance with the habits of many speakers that we can discover what were indiridualities in our first instructor. Not only has age and sex much influence, but the rery feeling of the moment sways the speaker. We want to find not so much what he does say, as what it is his intention to say, and that of course implies long familiarity, to be gained only by observation. (See especially the previous remarks on pp. 626-629.)

The difficulties of determining the exact generic promunciation of any language or dialect at any time, the knowledge indeed that from individual to individual there are great specific varictics, by comparing which alone can the generic character be properly evolved, must make us content with a rather indefinite degree of approximation. It is not too much to say that most phonetic writing is a rude symbolisation of sound. It answers its end if it suffices to distinguish dialects, and to enable the reader to pronounce in such a way that the instrncted listener shall be able to determine the dialect which the speaker means to imitate. Hence, really, only broad generic differences can be symbolised by an outsider. But the speakers themselres $f c e l$, rather than accurately understand, the errors committed in this imitation, are aware of differences, althongh they can seldom name them, which distinguish sub-dialects, villages, cliques, individuals. And these differences are as philologically important, as, geographically, the streamlets which, trickling down the mountain-side, subsequently develope into rivers. It is only by a strict investigation of the nature of fine distinctions that we can account for the existence of broad distinctions. Hence phonologists occasionally endearour to symbolise even the smallest. Their success hitherto has not been too great. But they have at any rate produced weapons which few can wield. Hereafter, perhaps, when phonetic training is part of school education, -as it shonld be, and as it must be, if we wish to develope linguists or public speakers, or even decent private readers,-ears will be sharpened, and distinctions about which we now hesitate will become clear. Then we may learn to separate the compound speech-sounds heard into their constituents, as surely as the conductor of a band can detect the work of each instrument in a crashing chord. In the incan time we must do something, howerer little, ragne, and unsatisfactory it may appear, or the foundations of our science will never be lail.

Mr object in the present section is to examine, so far as I can in a small compass, the promunciation at present used by educated English speakers, without attempting to decide what is "correct." That I have not even a notion of how to determine a standard promunciation, I have already shewn at length (pp. 624-630). But such a determination is really of no interest to the present inquiry. We merely wish to know what are the sounds which educated

English men and women really use when ther speak their native language. Considering that Mr. Melville Bell has noted sounds with greater accuracy than any previous writer, I shall take first the 26 words in which he condenses "the English Alphabet of Visible Speech, expressed in the Names of Numbers and Oljects," and carefully examine them, not for the purpose of determining the values of the letters (suprà pp. 567-580), or the expression of the sounds (suprà pp. 593-606), although the tables of these already giren should be constantly consulted, but of determining, so far as possible, the actual sounds used in speaking English, and the method of putting those sounds together. Properly speaking these lists should also be supplemented by another, containing those words which are rariously pronomeed, but to give this at full would be almost to write a pronouncing dictionary. I shall, however, furnish a few lists of rarictics which I have actually heard and noted, and some passages carefully palacotyped after Xr. M. Bell, Prof. Haldeman, Mr. Sweet and nyself. After this consideration of celucated, or artificial, literary speech, I will in the next section take up that of uneducated or natural or organic local speech, known as English dialectal pronunciation. Although my notes on this part of my subject may appear almost too full, yet they are really both imperfect and brief, considering that dialectal speech is of the utmost importance to a proper conception of the historical derelopment of English pronunciation, just as an examination of the existing remains of those zoologic genera which descend from one geological period to another, serves to shew the real derelopment of life on our globe.

The object of the following examination is to determine as precisely as possible the phonetic elements of received English pronunciation (23, $b$ ), and I shall for brevity constantly refer to the preceding pages where they have been already incidentally noted and explained, and shall adopt the style of reference employed in the indlices. A number followed by the letters $a, b, c, d$, signifies the first, second, thirel, or fourth quarter of the corresponding page ; the addition of $a b, b a ; b e, c b ; c d, d c$, indicating lines near the divisions of those quarters. If the letter is accented, the second column is referred to. Thus ( $23, b$ ) means, page 23 , second quarter, and ( $51, l^{\prime}$ ) page 51 , fourth quarter, second column.

An Examination of Mr. Melifle Bell's Twenty-six Key-words to Evglisi Speech-sounds, and of the Relations of those Sounds.

## Summary of Contents.

1. One. (iv wə uo'), relations of (w bli), Prof. March's (w), Welsh $w$, latin $v$. (a s), Welsh $y$, Dutch $u$, French cu, German ö. ( n ), English and continental ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, d, n), Sanscrit cerebrals or coronals, aud dentals. ( $d_{d} \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{mnh}$ ). Synthesis (won).
2. Two (t t.). (uu, u'и u"и zuw). Synthesis (tuu, tu[un, t;uluu, tdun, "tiluu).
3. Three .(th , th the thlh). Trilled
and untrilled $r$ ( $r_{0} r_{0} h \quad r$ r). (ii
 thrhrii, thdhrii).
4. Four. (f th phi). Diphthongs with

 Rapid (fa). Synthesis (fooa), length of lirst element of (oo.1).
5. Five. Diphthongs of (oi) class, (o'i
 Greck et $\alpha_{i}$, ( ${ }^{\prime} y$ wh'i wh'y su $i$ aa').

The (oi) series (úi, úi, $u i$, , ${ }^{i} i$ ó $i{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} i$ $\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ). ( $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{f}$ ) relations to (bh, ph), German and Dutch $w, v, f,(\mathrm{~B})$, Hungarian $v, f$, Sanscrit $v$. Syuthesis (fa'iv, fva'ivf), English fimal (-vf, -zs, -dhth, -zhsh), German initial (sz-).
6. Six. (s sh, s sh, t st s ) Spanish $s, z$, Basque $s$. ( $i$ i) Dutch $i$. (k $k$ ). Synthesis (siks).
7. Seren. (e E $e \mathrm{c}^{1} \mathrm{e}_{1}$, e e $\left.{ }^{0} \mathrm{e} \mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{e}} \epsilon^{i} \quad i e\right)$. ( n , nn ' n , ' l 'm ' n 'ı). Synthesis (scv'n).
8. Eight. (ee êi éi éei éei ée i éj ) Dutch $c e ~ e i$; when ( $e e^{\prime}$ ) tends to ( $e e^{\prime} \mathrm{j}$ ). Final mutes ( $\left.\mathrm{t}^{6} \mathrm{tH}^{6} \mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{t} \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{t}^{2}\right)$. Glides $><$, initial ( $\mathrm{t}<$ ), medial ( $>\mathrm{t}<$ ), final ( $>\mathrm{t}<$ '). Synthesis (eet ee'jt), initral glottids (,ee ;ee $I^{e e}$ ).
9. Book. (p b, t d, k g, p,ii b,ii, piii 'bii 'bmii, b cii, 'b, 'tp, b' bp'). Dutch rule for $p b .(u \mathrm{u})$. (k g,) labialised ( $\mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~g} w, \mathrm{t} w \mathrm{~d} w, \mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~h} \mathrm{~g} w \mathrm{~h})$, palatalised ( kj gj, tj dj), and labio-palatalised (kuj guj, tuj duj). Synthesis (buk).
10. Watch. (A $0, o_{11} \mathrm{~A}_{0}$ ), Diphthong ( $A^{\prime} i$ ) and German Diphthongs. (sh sh sh t, sh d,zh, sh, tsh). Mr. Goodwin's (kJ, gf), Sanserit e eh, $j j h$, \& $s h$, Italian ee, ge, Polish cz. Synthesis, ( $\mathrm{w}-0>\mathrm{t}<$ sh ).
11. Saro. (ad, AA Aaleb). Synthesis ( $s_{A A}$ ).
12. Feathers. (dh .th, ddh, dbd.) (ra $x$, qs.) Synthesis ( $\mathrm{f}<\mathrm{e}>\mathrm{dh}<\mathrm{r}>\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}$ ).
 oq, əqg' oqk $\left.{ }^{〔}-q g--q t h-q h t h\right)$, French nasals. Synthesis ( $\mathrm{t}<0>\mathrm{q}-\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}$ ).
14. Whip. (wh), Mr. M. Bell's "rudimental symbols," suprà p. 15, $9 a$, $5 a, 9 b, 9 h, 9 c, 9 l$ and $9 m, 9 c+9 m$, $10 f$ and $\overline{5} f, i 0 e, 10 d$; material of speech ("i 'h th 'h "h 'b), Vowels,
 u'h нh нh h), Glides slurs breaks ( $><$ ) - ). Sanscrit aspiration, ûshman, soshman, anûshman, jihvâmûlîya, upadmânîya, spiritus as-
per, spiritus lenis, visarjanîya. Japanese syllabary. English aspirate. Sanserit $h$. English hisses and buzzes. Generated (lh rh mh nh), conversion of Sanserit $m$, $n$ into visarjanîya, (l-lh-t, l-t d-t ${ }^{\text {t }}$, simnhs sinzs), German initial $s=(\mathrm{sz}-$ ). Englisb final $z=$ (-zs). Anglo-saxon hw hr hl hm hn. English wh- = (wh, [hw, whw), opinions of Professors Haldeman, March, Whitney. No (fv- thdh-sz- shzb-) in English, so that (whw-) would be anomalons. "Parasitic ntterances." Varicties of wheat (rníit, mhuíit, mhuíit, Ihunit, whiit, nwhiit, whwiit, wiit, kwhiit, phiit, fiit). Usage variable. (p), length of final consonants, Mr. Sweet's rule. Synthesis ( $\mathrm{wh}<i>\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{h}$ ).
15. Lamp. (l lh Ihh lhh ). Confusion of (d, l, r), Egyptian, Chinese, Japanese ( $(\mathrm{r})$, Sanserit $l r i$, $l r \hat{i}$, and ri ri. (æ E, ab a), Dutch $e$, IIngraian $e$, Danish a (a). Variable English a in chaff pass ask bath chance (æ a æe ah). ( m 'm mh mhp). Synthesis (, $\mathrm{l}<\mathrm{re}>\mathrm{m}-\mathrm{p}$ ').
16. Onions. (J Jh, gjh kyh, gjh kjh), Brücke's, Merkel's,and Lepsius's theories. Relation of ( J w) to diphthongs. Syuthesis ( $\quad$ > $11-n j-J<b>n-s)$, ( $n$, nJ, nj).
17. Boat. (oo ón oo'w oo'ou). Synthesis. 18. Cart. (k kj, aa aaı). Synthesis ( $k<a=t^{\dagger}$ ).
19. Tent. (nt,nht). Synthesis $\left(\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{e}>\mathrm{n} \cdot \mathrm{t}^{6}\right)$
 a'u ó $u$ ó $u$ w' $u$ ). Synthesis.
21. Dog. $(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{g})$. Synthesis.
22. Montiey. (m, a e, q qh, k, i). Syuthesis ( $\mathrm{m}<a>\mathrm{q}-\mathrm{k}<i$ ).
23. Cage. ( $k$ ). (ee éi). (dl, zh , zh, zh shit). Synthesis (keed,2h,sh).
24. And. (ah æ) ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{d}$ ). Synthesis.
25. Bird. (mo., a), er, ur. Quadrilivear arrangement of the 36 Visible Speech vowels by tongue heights. Synthesis of birld bud (bəəd, bad).
26. Canary ('r). Syuthesis (kence'ri).

1. ONE, Bell's (wan), my (wən). Prof. Haldeman notes (won) as the pronunciation of Charles Kean, at the l'rincess's 'Theatre, London, 1859. Probably (won, won, won) are all in use. I seem to have heard them from elderly clucated people. Charles Kean's pronunciation was possibly an intentional stage archaism. Provincially all
and many others occur. Provincialities are, however, not considered here.
(w). No English speakers, so far as I can reeall, say (ua'n) with a diphthong, although Mr. Murray (no doubt correctly) suggests its derivation from such a prefix, "like the provincial wuts for onts." We shall bive many

## 1. (W)-contimued.

examples of this introduced (u) hereafter; see the general remarks on dialectal vowel relations, § 2, No. 6. Much interest attaches for many reasons to the sounds (w, bh) ( $513, d^{\prime}$ ) and diphthongising (u) (185, a). Foreigners generally find considerable difficulty in pronouncing (w). Educated Germans domiciled in this country, even with English wives and families, are frequently umable to separate the sound of (w) from that of their own (bh), and Frenchmen, Italians, etc., substitute a diphthongising ( n ). That initial $w$ is not (u) in English results almost with certainty from $w^{*}$ oo . woodd,$=($ wuu, wuud), the latter with a very long rowel. In rood, would, woman, $=$ (wud, wumen), it is conceivable that (uúd, u $\dot{u} \cdot \mathrm{men}$ ) might be said. Welshmen, untrained, say (uu), sce (785, $c$, 101, $a, l$ ) (uud), and (ud, u•men),-compare Sir Hugh Erans' o'man, as the fo. 1623 writes it in the Merry Wives, act 4. se. 1,-and some Scotchmen and Englishmen say (wod, wa men) (176, a), just as we all now say (wornd., and not (wu'ndı), but the W ${ }^{\dot{c}}$ elshman Salesbury said ( $u$ 'nder), see (777, c). An article which I wrote on the Latin V consonant in the Academy for 15th Jan. 1872, distinguishing a diphthongising or con-sonant (n) from the English consonant (w), induced Prof. March, of Easton, Pemnsylvania, U.S., author of the well-known Anglo-Saxon Grammar, to write me a letter on 22nd March, 1872, of which the following are extracts. Not having been written for publication, they take the form of rough notes:
"We have here students of many nationalities. That makes it easy to get a general conception of almost any sound. Perhaps the mixture makes the sounds unreliable for so minute distinctions as you take note of. A native Welshman from South Wales, not yet having command of English, pronounces $w$ just as I do, has no difthculty with uoman, never did have, pronounces Welsh words beginning with $w$ in the same way, never heard any other sound for them; so he says. Makes a good $v$ for Welsh $f$, touchics his teeth fairly; never knew any other way. But Eniglish was spoken as well as Welsh in his native place, and he has always heard it [1. Sce remarks at end of quotation].

## 1. (W)-continued.

"Our German professor does not make $w$ exactly as 1 do. He says he was directed by his English teacher to begin with oo (u), and he does, following with a weak $v^{\prime}$ (bh) [2]. Practically it is a good $w$ for us. I ought to say, however, that his German $w$ is much nearer the English $w$ than that of many Germans. The students who read German with him always catch from him $v$, and not $v$. It used to be the direction for German $w$ at Harvard, to 'make English $w$ without the initial oo sound' [3].
"All this about $w$ I hare mentioned as a kind of introduction to the state. ment that I always thought the Latin $v$ was our $w$. Their having no separate letters for $u$ and $v$ seemed reason enough [4], before I thought of the German; and the apparently close analogy between the German hearing of our $w$ and the Greek representation of the Latin ri, i.e. the careless $\beta$ in common nouns, the more careful ov, and the occasional refined ou $\beta$ in proper names, as well as the facts of phonetic change, seemed to speak for English rather than German.
"The distinction between English $w$ and your diphthong con-sonant $\breve{u} \breve{u}$ I had not made [5], and I am not absolutely certain that I do not myself make what you would call the diphthongal ofs $^{\prime}$ where you make a different sound as English w. The difference between my making oui, we and German wie, seems to me this. Set tongue and lips for oo ( u ) and issme breath (sonant), then without moving the lips change the tongne for $i$, and it gives oui [6]. Set as before and issue same sonant breath, but, with the change of tongue for $i$, move the lips, constricting slightly, and then quickly letting them fall loose, and you have English $u c$ as I make it [7]. The difference between out and we seems to be essentially in the lip morement.
"For the German, omit the tongueadjustment for oo, and make a lip-morement somewhat similar to the English; but in the English $w$ the mouth is, even when nearest to closure, still open, and in the oo form; so that, if held steadily, a resonant oo might be made through the aperture [8]. In the German I draw my upper lip down to my lower lip till it just ticks and is kept from touching along a considerable line

## 1. (w)-continued.

by the buzzing breath. The difference here seems to be in the form of the lips at their nearest approach, the English being nearly oo, and the German nearer $b$. To me the English $w$, as I make it, is one of the easiest of letters, and the German one of the hardest to make after oo, as in the German attempts at English $w$ " [9].

On these careful observations I would remark, [1] that the fact of the Welshman having coustantly heard English (w) rather disqualifies him for a test. See also [j] at end.
[2] The direction given to a German to begin with ( u ) and go on to a gentle (bh), that is to call we ( $\mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{L}}$ bhii)- for $_{L}$ see ( $419, d$ )-is merely a contrivance to make him raise the back of his tongue properly, (u*bh), or the simultaneous utterance of these two sounds being almost exactly (w), compare ( $762, d^{\prime}$ ). Compare also Lediard $(1047, c)$. The old Greek ov̀ $\beta$ for Latin $v$ consonant ought to point out the same thing. But here doubts arise into which I eannot now enter. That this German should be heard by American students to say (w) rather than (v) upsets the (v) theory of Brücke by a crucial test.
[3] This direction is the reverse of the former, and makes $(\mathrm{bh})=(\mathrm{w}-\mathrm{u})$, or (w) with the tongue depressed, a good shorthand rule, though I fiud "(v) without touching the teeth" easier, and it is also more correct.
[4] Any one who reads Salesbury on I consonaut ( $754, c$ ), will see that such an opinion is uutenable.
[5] My theory was that Latin V, I, when before a rowel were ( $u, i$ ), forming a diphthong with a following vowel on which lay the force, as (uí, ué, uá ; ié, iá), etc.-for this notation see (419, c) or con-sonants as 1 called them, as long as YV, 11, did not occur in writing, but that the introduction of these in place of YO, and simple I, shewed the development of a consonant form (in the modern sense), and I took those later consonants to be (bh, J), rather than (w, J), in consequence of the large field of (bl) in comparison to (w). Prof. March's doubt as to whether his own $w$ is not my diphthongising oo, precisely the natural Welsh sound as I conceive, renders his ideutification of the Welshman's pronunciation with his own, no proof that the Welshman rcally said (w).

## 1. (w)-continued.

[6] This direction should give (uy'). or (úy). I hear the French sound as (ui), without any intermediate ( $y$ ), and with the force on ( $u$ ), shewn by the frequent form (ú i ) or ( $\hat{\mathrm{a}}$ " i ) with a sharp whispered or voiceless (i). Henceforth I use ('u) for whispered (u), sec ( $10, b$ ), the rocal chords nearly touching each other, and ("u) for voiceless ( $u$ ), the vocal chords as wide apart as for ordinary breathing, and so on for other rowels. All these distinctions will be fully considered below No. 14, (wh).
[7] This should give ( $u$-wj-i), where (wj) means (w), with the tongue as for (i), instead of as for (u). I believe, however, that it is meant for (Luwi), where (w) is so gradually formed from (u) by constriction, that two syllables are not felt. There would be the slightest possible difference between (,uwi) and (uí), but I have not yet observed or noted either of these sounds among Euglishmen or Americans,--by no means a proof of their non-occurrence.
[8] If a clear ( $u$ ) conld be heard through the (w) position, (w) would be (u) ; to me this is not possible; (w) is a buzz, more like (z), which has a central passage, than (v), wbich has a divided passage, but still distinctly a buzz, from want of a proper resomance chamber, the aperture being constricted. In both (w, bh) I feel the lips vibrate much more strongly than for (u).
[9] As a gradual constriction, (ur) is easy enough, but it has no syllabic effect, that is, no distinctly appreciable glide, like (ubl). The opening (wu) is more syllabic, but (bhu) is still more so, owing to the greater change ; (yw, wy) are more difficult to me than (ybh, bhy). But (iw, ew, rew) are syllabic, with 'stopped' vowels, and hence quite distinct from (íu, éu, ǽu), and not very difficult to my organs. Still eveu here ( $\mathrm{ibh}, \mathrm{ebh}, \mathrm{rebh}$ ) are easier to me. Of course (iv, ev, ær), which are frightfully difficult to a German, are perfectly easy, as in to live, heavy, have.

In a review by Mr. D. R Goodwin on Dr. R. G. Latham's English Language (North American Review, No. 154, Jan. 1852), which I shall have again occasion to cite, I find the following (p. 8), which gives another American observation on ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ) comparable to Prof. March's, and which I cite as the

## 1. (w)-continued.

 only remark of a similar character which I hare found: "The semi-vowels (lene) may be described as a sort of fulcrum or pirot of articulation, in passing from the English e (or $i$ short) to any closely subjoined rowel-sound, in the case of $y$; and from $u$ or oo to any such vowelsound in the case of $u$. Thus in yarn, wit, we may give first the full sounds ec-arm, oo-'it, where, between the initial vowel-sound $e e, 00$, and the following vowel-sounds, the organs pass through a certain momentary but definite position, which gives the character of a consonant-sound, and which we have denominated a fulcrum or pivot. If now the rowel part, the ce- or oosound be reduced to a minimum, and be begun immediately, upon this pivot or fulcrum, and pronounced yard, wit, we shall have the $y$ and $w$ representing sounds of a proper consonant character.", By the expression "semi-vowels (lene)" and by afterwards saying that they have only a "momentary" position, Mr. Goodwin exeludes the continuant character of ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ), and hence we must suppose certain mutes and sonants, that is, explodents of the same character as $(g, b)$ in the position of $(i, u)$, with the aperture quite closed up. Now the first of these explodents auswer almost precisely to ( $\mathrm{kf}, \mathrm{gf}$ ), introducer in No. 10 , (sh), and slightly different from ( $\mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{gj}$ ), as will be there explained at length. These sounds, however, are difficult to keep from ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{zh}$ ), as will there be shewn, and it is notorious that ( J ) after ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ) generates such sounds. The lip-explodent, however, cannot be clearly bept from (b) itself. Mr. Goodwin surely did not mean (gy, b) to be his "lenesemi-vowels." A less degree of contact must be as . sumed, and writing ( $g_{f_{1}}, b_{1}$ ) for these theoretical sounds, according to the principle explained in No. 7, (e, E), Mr. Goodwin's explanation seems to give $y, u=\left(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{ig}_{1^{-}}} \mathrm{L}^{\mathrm{ub}} \mathrm{l}_{1^{-}}\right)$.English (w) is to me a buzz, with small central lip aperture, back of tongue raised, and with the museles of the lips not held so tightly as for (bh), so that the expelled voice can easily inflate buth upper and lower lip beyond the tecth, which are kept well apart, and do not at all stop the passage of the breath. The well-known confusion of $w, r$, perhaps arises from (bh), but

1. (I)-continued.
is esteemed odiously rulgar (1S6, dc), and will be considered bereafter.
(a, ə). The habits of English speakers vary with respect to (a, o), and no one would be remarked for pronouncing either in a syllable under accent or force. But to my car, (a) has often a thick, deep effect, naturally unpleasant to one accustomed to (o), which, probably, to the other speakers is fully as unpleasantly thin and high. The position of the tongue for $(a)$ is much higher, and its form flatter, than for (a), in which the tongue lies in precisely the same position as for (a, o, o), as roughly shewn in the diagram ( $14, b$ ). The (a) position of the tongue is the most neutral and colourless of all, but, leaving a much narrower channel than for ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{A}, \infty$ ), produces a finer and more delicate sound. I usually assume the sound heard to be (a), unless the effect of (a) is very marked. There seems to be no significance attached to the distinction $(a, a)$. These vowels in syllables under force are, among European nations, said to be exclusively English, Scotch, and Welsh. According to Dutch writers (Donders and Land, who are both aequainted with English), the English is different from the Dutch short $u$, which is ( $\infty$ ) or ( $($ ), as in French eu and German ö, and not (a), as wrongly stated $\left(236, d^{\prime}\right)$. The English sound is not labialised at all, although it has sprung from a labial ( $u, u$ ), and there is great confusion in the way in which (u, o) are used at the present day $(175, b)$. The intermediate sound between (u) and (o) or (a) seems to be ( $u_{0}$ ) or (u), pronounced with lips as open as for (0), a sound which to unaccustomed ears hovers between ( $u, 0, a, \partial$ ), but is said to be prevalent in the north of England. The Welsh ( y ) is sometimes (a), but this sound is not universal in Wales, p. 763. The sound (on) is heard only in such phrases as "a good 'un, little 'un"; of course it is not an albbreviation of (won), but an independent and older formation, unaffected by a prefixed (u). Being unemphatic, Mr. Bell would also con!sider it as (on) or (mn), instead of his emphatic (an). The sound of such unemphatic syllables will be cousidered hercalter.

## 1. (n).

(n). The tip of the tongue for received English ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}$ ) is not so advanced towards the teeth or gums, as for the continental sound. In my own pronunciation ( n ) is not even gingival, that is, the tip of the tongue does not even reach the upper gums. Mr. J. G. Thempson, of the Madras Civil Scrrice, in his lithographed pamphlet, "An unpointed Phonetic Alphabet based upon Lepsius' Standard Alphabet, but easier to read and write and less likely to be mistaken, cheaper to cast, compose, correct and distribute, and less liable to accident" (Mangalore, 1859, pp. 64), distinguishes four classes of $t, d, l, n$. 1) Lingual, which, from his diagram, are apparently palacotype ( $\mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{dj}, \mathrm{lj}, \mathrm{nj}$ ), to which 1 shall have to recur in Nos. 10 and 16 below. 2) Palatal, which by the diagram are are ( $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{N}$ ), and which I believe correspond more correctly to the English sounds as I pronounce them, the tip of the tongue being laid against "the very crown of the palatal arch," except that I touch the palate with the upper and not the under part of the tip, so that the tongue is not at all inverted. The inversion of the tongue, as shewn in the diagram, seems to be due merely to roughness of drawing. "The palatal $t$," says Mr. Thompsen, p. 31, "is proneunced by pressing the tip of the tongue vertically against the crown of the palatal arch so as to close every passage for the breath," which however is not possible unless the sides of the tongue also press against the palate and side molars, " and then withdrawing it with considerable force, while the breath is forcibly expelled." These are the so-called "cerebrals," and the ( $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{D}$ ) are the four-dotted Indian 3) Gingival, in which the tip of the tongue touches the gums, and which he recomnizes as the Englisht $t, d$. 4) Dental, where the tip of the tongue is put against the teeth, is the continental $t$, and the Indian two-dotted $t$ ..". "The gingival sounds of $t$ and $d$," says Mr. Thompson on p. 23, "seem to be peculiar to English. Lepsius quotes the $t$ in town as an example of the dental $t$ : and this is a common mistake of foreigncrs, and one of the greatest wbstacles in the way of their acquiring the pronuuciation of English.

## 1. (1) -continued.

Singularly enough the same mistake has been made by Wilson in his Sanskrit Grammar. But Forbes has perceived the truth. On such a point, bowerer, the evidence of the natives of India is worth more than that of any Englishman, and in almost every word they represent our $t$ and $d$ by the palatal [cerebral] Letters of their alphabets. Thus in a Telugu advertisement in the Fort St. George Gazette, the words Devonshire Julia Eitward Act commander appear as (Divanshisar dzhuulisu edwardu aaktu kamaandaru). . . . In advertisements from the same paper from another office, the words govermmont and private secretary appear in Telugu as (gəuranmendu, praiveet sekriteeri), and in Tamil as (gəwərnmendu, pinaiveettu sekritteeri). That the English $t$ is not a dental letter anybody may conviuce himself by pronouncing a continental or Indian word in which a dental $t$ occurs, and immediately giving the same sound to the $t$ in town letter boat.". But we have not to go abroad for this purpose. The dental $t$ before $r$ is very common in our own northern dialects.

In my palaeotype I erroueously used (.t, .d, .l, .n) for dentals, as giving greater force, and thickness to the vowels. I have however employed (tr, dr, lr, nr) occasionally. This inconvenient notation, involving the mutilation of a type, I propose to replace by ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n})$, where the turncd grave (') preceding a letter shews it has to be taken more forward. We have then ( $\mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}$ ) for this series, and there is also the Arabic ( $t$ ), which is difficult to define, but which Thompson classes as a lingual ( tj ), together with thick Gaelic $t$, of which I know nothing. This is from an English point of view. A foreigner would consider our ( $t, d$ ) as retraeted. The English ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}$ ) are peculiarly light, and do not thicken the sound of the following or preceding vowel at all. I doubt whether this thickening effect $(54, a)$ is really due to the pecnliar position of the tongue and the glide thus formed. I am inelined to think that it must be accompanied by a peculiar action of the throatt. Thus practically I find myself able to produce almost similar effects with the Engrish retracted (t), by the muscular actions involuntarily resulting

## 1. ( n )-contineted.

from a proper mental intention when gliding on to the rowel.

As this page was passing through the press (12th Angust, 1873 ), Mr. K. G. fiupta, a native of Bengal, well acquainted with Sanscrit after the Benares school, had the kinducss to give me orial exemplitication of the Indian sounds. Mr. Murray was also fortunately present. I shall have occasion to rectur to the information I then received as to the modern Indian pronunciation of Sanscrit, which, though probably considerably different from the ancient, is certainly its true descendant. Mr. Gupta, who has resided a considerable time in England and speaks English perfectly, had just returned from I'aris. He distinctly recognized his own murddhanya or cerebral t, d, as the true English sounds, and his own dental, or as he considers them "soft," $t$, $d$, as the true French sounds. To some Indians, then, the distinction, Indian ( T D) and English ( t ), is inappreciable. If palacotype were introduced in a foreign book, certainly "T D" would be used for the English and Indian cerebrals, and " $t$ d" for the dentals. But it is strietly necessary in a work intended for English people to make the distinction between the usual English ( $t$ d) and foreign dental(, t, d) elear to the eye. Foreigners will observe that for ( $t d$ ) the tip of the tongne touches the erown of the palate, and hence these letters will be called coromal, and for (.t, d) the tongue is bronght absolutely against the teeth, and bence they are dental. In all the foreign words hitherto introduced, in which ( $t$, d) bave been written, (.t, d) must be understood. The use of ( $t, d$ ) was an anglieism which will be avoided hereafter, except as an abbreviation, after due explanation. The ordinary speaker of received English is altogether ignorant of the sounds (. $t, d$ ), and when he hears them confurses them with his own ( $t$, d). Many Englishmen who have resided for years in India never learn to appreciate the difference. Fet in a Calcutta newspaper, (The Englishman, 10th May, 1873, 1. 4, col. 2, in an article quoted from the Friend of Indiu, of Sth May,) we read: "If any one says the Euglish cerebrals are like enough to the Indian dentals, to repie-

## 1. ( n )-continued.

sent them, let him remember the words Magistrate and Supcrintendent written in Bengali. Moreover a man who confuses dentals and cerebrals in Bengali, says stick when he means kick, sixty when he means seven, and is unable to distinguish a leasc from a leaf, a cannon from a hat, fear from market-price, and pease-porridge from the branch of $a$ tree." And the only English dentals which Mr. Gupta admits are (tb, dh), for which the tip of the tongue is in the same position as it is for his (.t.d), the sole difference consisting in the tightness of closure, formed by the sides of the tongue. The description of (T D) on pp. 4 and 9 as $(t+d+)$ or " $(t, d)$ with an inverted tongue," is incorrect for Sanscrit ट ड and must be omitted. This definition arose from Bopp's stating that "they are pronounced by bending the tongue far back and bringing it against the palate" (indem man die Spitze der Zunge weit zurückbiegt und an den Gaumen setzt, Gram. der Sans. Spr. in kürz. Fass. 2nd ed. $1845,1.15$ ), and Mr. Gupta distinetly repudiated inversion. But (T D) may be retained as special signs for the Indian cerebrals, until their identification with the English coronals has been generally acknowledged. Mr. M. O. Mookerjey ( $1102, b$ ) qualified his identification of ( T D ) with (t d) by a saving "almost." Possibly the Indian sounds may be retracted ( i , d).

As to ( $n$ n) Mr: Gupta said that no distinction is now made in pronunciation except in connection with following consonants. In Pâṇini's name, for example, both n's are alike ( $n$ ) ; no distinction between ( $n, n$ ) being heard in India. The nasal resonance would be the same, but it is possible to make the glides on to and from vowels sensibly different. We must conclude that the ancients felt a difference, or they would not have used two letters, althongh this and other distinctions have been lost in modern speech.

In the ( n ) there is a complete closure by the tongue, so that the lips may be either open or shat, and there is complete resonance in the nose. Compare the effeet of a person saying one with or without "a cold in the head," that is, with incomplete and complete nasal resonance, as: (wod, won). The nasal resonance is prolonged to the last, so that there is no approach to (woud,

## 1. ( n$)$-continued.

want, wonl). The voice is also prolonged to the last, and does not dwindle off to (nh) as (wannh). The $(\mathrm{n})$ is often very long, but there is not usually a decrease and increase of force, giving the effect of reduplication, as ( wən n ), see ( $52, a$ ).
(won). The method of synthesis must be observed. The labiality of the (w) should not affect the following vowel, changing (a) into (oh), or ( a ) into $(o)$, even as a gliding intermediate sound, thongh carelessness in this respect may be one cause of the generation of (won), through (wohn, won, won), if indeed (on) were not original. Hence the lips have to be sharply opened, and the buzz of the ( $w$ ) scarcely audible, except of course for certain rhetorical effects. The (ə) is short, but may be of medial length; if it were prolonged, it would give the effect of wurn (w..n), although there must be no trill; indeed (wəən, wəomn) are not uncommon cockneyisms. The prolongation is throwu on to the glide to ( $\mathbf{n}$ ), which is the same as that to (d), and on to the ( n ) itself. The urula does not act to open the passage to the nose till ( $\rightarrow$ ) is quite finished. Any nasalising of the vowel, as (wan), is quite abnormal, although occasionally lieard, but not among educated English speakers.

## 2. TWO, (tuu).

$(\mathrm{t})$. The tip of the tongue against the crown of the palate, see (1096, c).
(un). The throat not widened, a clear flute-like sound, with no approach to (oo) in it. It may be short, however, as well as long, and should not end with a whisper ('u), or hiss (" n 1 ), or consonant (w, wh), as in Icelandic ( $548, d$ ). But it may end with much diminishing force. With some perhaps it tends to (uulu). Mr. Sweet tells me that he has detected himself in saying (túuw). In Danish he says there is a slight final hiss after (ii, uu), thus (ish, uwh), see his paper on Danish (Philol. Trans. 1873-4, p. 105). Perhaps the Danish sounds are rather (iil ${ }^{\text {Jh }}$, uulwh).

## 2. (tuu).

(tuu). For the synthesis, observe that for ( $t$ ) the glottis is quite closed, but not so tightly as to be forced open by an explosion, and that the vocal ligaments should begin to vibrate for (uu) simultaneously with the release of the closure ( t ). But in Germany and Denmark the glottis seems to be open when (t) is held, so that on its release some unvocalised breath escapes first, which may be expressed by ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{un}$ ), see ( $10, c d$ ), when gentle, and ( $\mathrm{thpuu}^{\text {) }}$ when jerked. Some public speakers in England cultivate this habit, thinking that (tun, duu) are thus more distinctly separated. It is not, however, usual with English speakers, though Irish. men are given to it. If the glottis be tightly closed for ( $t$ ), and then the breath is made to break through it with explosion, we hear ( $\mathrm{t} ; \mathrm{H} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { u }}$ ) ), which, when ( $t$ ) is taken dental as ( $t ; 1$ Hum), bas a very singular effect, sometimes heard from Irishmen, but not at all received. The quiet way in which an Englishman says and distinguishes (tuu, duu), without any effort, is remarkahle, when contrasted with an Upper German's struggles. The rowelsound should commence at the instant that the ( t ) contact is released, so that the glide ( $52, b c$ ) from ( t ) on to ( nu ) is quite distinct. The voice should not commence before, or the effect ( t dum) will be produced, as in the Yorkshire $t$ ' door, giving a kind of pause before (duu) and a thickness to the (nu) whicin is not received English, or else giving a German implosion ("t-d-nu). This implosion consists of a dull thud produced by compressing the air between the closed glottis and the closure produced by the tongue tip for ('st), lips for ('s 1 p ) and back of tongue for ('k). Sce Merkel, Physiologie der Menschlichen Sprache, p. 149. What is here sail of initial (t) applies to imitial (p, k) with the variants ( $\mathrm{PI}, \mathrm{pHI}, \mathrm{p} ; \mathrm{HI}, \mathrm{kI}$, kri, $k ; H$ ). See an explanation of ( $1 ;$ ) in No. 8, (ect): The whole subject will be more systematically discussed in No. 14, (wh).
3. THREE, (thrii), but (thrii, thryy) are perhaps more commonly heard.
(th). The tongue is bronght fully against the tecth, so that (th )

## 3. (th)-continued.

would be the proper sign ; but this will be used for the variant produced by thrusting the tongue between the upper and lower teeth, instead of simply pressing it against the upper teeth. We do not say (tth) initially, as some Germans think. We use that combination finally in eighth (attl),-quite a modern word, the old form being eight (eet),-and on sounding it the speaker will feel his tongue glide forward from palate to teeth. Compare also successive words, as "bread that is cut thin." Initially (, th) would be necessary and not difficult. In Greek $\tau \theta$ is common medially, oxiginally perhaps (, , tus ) and afterwards (ith). The hiss is sharp, but weak compared to (s). It is easily confused with ( f ), and is actually so confused dialectally.
(r). Mrr. Bell distinguishes English (r) as untrilled, as, in fact, a buzz, which may be written ( $r_{0}$ ), "the point of the tongue contracting the oral passage between it and the upper gum" ( ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ivible Specch, p. 52). But so far as I have noticed, $r$ before a rowel is always trilled $(196, b)$, unless there is an organic defect or bad habit in the speaker, not at all an unusual occurrence, and then some other trill, of the lip, uvula, or cartilaginous glottis, is substituted. The effect of a trill is that of a beat in music, a continually repeated " make and break" of sound, the different effect of the different trills resulting from the glides thus produced. See the phonautographic curres of the different trills in $F$. C. Donders, De Physiologie der Spraakklanken (Utrecht, 1870, pp. 24), p. 19. It is of course possible to produce a central hiss or buzz in the (r) position without interrupting the sound by a trill, and the result is different from ( $s, z$ ). There is, however, some difficulty to those accustomed to trill, in keeping the loose tip of the tongue stiff cnough not to trill. When this is accomplished, there is another difficulty, in keeping the front of the tongue far enough from the palate not to produce ( $s, \%$ ), and ret not so far as to give simple (a). This untrilled ( $r$ ), which will henceforth be marked ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{c}}$ ) when buzzed, and ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{h}$ ) when hissed, has therefore a great tendency to fall into (o), or some such indistiuct sound. Mr. Bell always writes
3. (r)-continued.
( $r_{c}$ ) in English, representing trilled ( $r$ ) by ( $r_{o j}$ ). Ilence my transcription of his character in $3 g$, or that in col. 3 , line $g, p .15$, was erroncous. The English ( r ) is in the ( t ) position, but a dental (r) also occurs. This (, r) is recognized in the Peak of Derbyshire by Mr. Hallam, as will appear below. In Sanscrit Mr. Gupta (1096, a) found that no $r$ occurred after coronals, (1096, c), and in pronouncing the dentals ( $t, \mathrm{~d}$ ) before the trill, he decided that the tongue remained forward, so that his Sanscrit trill was (r). The older grammarians differ, and only Pânini classes $r$ as a coronal (cerebral). (Whitney, Athar. V. Prâtiç. p. 29.) There is, however, also a recognized retracted Indian ( $\mathrm{r}^{2}$ ), which Mr. Gupta pronounced to me, the root being drawn back and the whole front half of the tongue "flopping" rather than trilling. There are doubtless many other tongue trills. In Scotch, and also in Italian, the trill is strong (.r).
(ii). This bright primary sound is, I find on careful observation, not so common in English as I had once thought it to be. Men with deep bass voices find it difficult to produce. The wide (ii) seems much more usual, and is especially frequent after ( $\mathbf{r}$ ). For (i, i) sce ( $58, a .83, d c .10 \bar{b}, b c .106, a, d$. $544, c)$. I have found such combinatiens as the following, in which ( $i$, ii) follow each other, useful in drawing attention to the difference; the (i) should be much prolonged in practising them. "Let baby be, with ugly glee, the glassy sca, worthy thee, a wintry tree, thy enemy me, they chiefly flee, a bulky key," also "of a verity (verriti) 'tis very tea (ver $i$ tii); a trusty trustee (tr-sti trastii)." There is sometimes a tendency to correct the error and say (ii), which may be the first step from (ii) to (oi) ( $473, e^{\prime}$ ), although a different origin for this change will hereafter be assigned (see § 2, No. 6, iv). There scems to be no generally recognized tendency to hiss out such a final (ii), thus (thrb"ii), as a French final (ii) is oceasionally hissed, or to close with such a hiss (ii'"ii), or with a consouant (iis, iish). But such sounds may otcur as individualities.
(thrii). In sy nthesis, the (th) is

## 3. (thriii).

very brief, but the change in sound as the tongue is retracted to (r) perceptible. The voice is laid on at the moment the (r) position has been assumed, and is heard throughout the rattle of $(r)$. We never say (thrhrii), by running the hiss on to the trill, or (thdhrii), by putting on the voice before the tongue leaves the tecth.
4. FOUR, Bell's (foı), or (fór.), see below, my (foor), but (foor, $\mathrm{f}_{\text {AA. }}$ ) are also heard from educated people. I have even heard (fáujus) from au educated gentleman, whether archaic, provincial, or puristic, I do not know.
(f). The lower lip is firmly pressed against the teeth, so that the hiss is strong and sharp, not unlike (th), indeed so like that when pronounced by themselves, as in spelling by sounds, it is difficult to distinguish (f) and (th) at a little distance. Hence (saif, saith) are both heard for $\operatorname{sigh}(213, d)$, and ( $f$, th) are confused in several words dialectally. Of course people with no upper teeth either use the hard gum or say (ph), the regular IIungarian sound of $f$. Compare remarks on Icclandic $f$ $(\overline{5}+2, c)$ and modern Greek $\phi(518, b)$.
(oor). This is the sound I use when the word is under force. It is a diphthong, the letter ( x ) representing as I now think $(196, b c)$ one of the indistinct sounds ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{E}, ~ ə, \infty)$, with a liberty, seldom exercised unless a vowel follows, to add the trilled ( $r$ ) of No. 3. My own belief is that in these diphthongal sounds I use (o), but I may say (e). I think that I never say ( a , ©). For non-diphthongal ( $x$ ), see Nos. 12 and 25 . For diphthongal ( x ), Mr . Melville Bell uses a new sign, called a "point-glide" (197, a), so that what I have transcribed (oa) might be more truly rendered (óro), the accent on (ó) pointing out the diphthongal nature of the combination, and thus reducing ( $r_{0}$ ) from a consonant to a pure glide; but his son, Mr. Graham Bell, in teaching deaf-mutes, has more receutly adopted a notation which is tantamount, in his orthography, to my (óo'), using (') as really a helpless indication of obscure vocality.

There are four of these ( $x$ ) diph-
4. (oo.1)-continued.
thongs in English, in ear, air, oar, oor ( $07, d .196, b$ to $199, a .200, d$ to 202, a), which are, I believe, in the pronunciation of strict speakers (iii, ee., oo.x, uu. $)$, that is, ( $i^{\prime}$, ée', óo', u'u') when not before a vowel, and (ii"r, ée'r, óo'r, $u^{\prime} u$ 'r) always before, and admissibly not before, a vowel. The diphthong theoretically indicated by the acute accent mark is quite perfect. There is no tendency to form two syllables, as a general rule. But I have heard (foo)ed, koo)ext) from old people, see (Goo'ex) (726, c). Smart says (Dict. art. 54, note) that there is no difference in London between payer and pair. To me the sounds are (реe je.t, pee..), and the use of the first for the sccond, which I sometimes hear, appears to me to be an archaism. Instead of ( $00, \mathrm{jex}$ ) or (00.1), however, it is extremely common to hear (AA) or (AA', AAA) if the speaker is very "correct" ( $95, a, d .197$, a. 245, ab. $575, c d .603, a^{\prime}$ ). This (o0.x) is the only recognized combination in which ( 00 ) remains in modern English, but it is rapidly disappearing. A few use it in (doog, oo tis ), see ( $94, d$. $602, c b)$, but here it is more often ( $\rho ว \mathrm{~h}, ~ \supset \rho, ~ A A$ ), and is intended for ( 0 ).

Donders identifies (I) in this combination with the glottal $r$ ( I ), see (8, c), saying (op. cit. p. 20): "The sound of ( I ) is easy to produce. Sing as deep a note as possible, and then try to sing a decper one. The voice will be replaced by a peculiar crackling noise (krakend geluid)." After noticing its relation to the Arabic ain ( $\varepsilon$ ), he says: "Thick voices are iuclined to use it as a rowel. Others connect it or alternate it with the voice, giving a tone of lacrymose sentimentality, and, when the mouth is closed, it is heard as a mournful moan. It is also used as a trill. Brücke considers it to be the trill of the Low Saxons. I heard it thus used in the London dialect in a peculiar manner: horse was pronounced simply as ose but with the moaning voice ( T ), which gives a little trilling effect to the consonant." But Land (Over Uitspraak en Spelling, Amsterdam, 1870) says: " $r$ is very soft both in Friesic and English; at the beginning of a syllable it scems to consist of one single stroke of the tongue, and before an explosive consonant, after a long vowel (boord, pecrd, compare English bird, park), it sounds to my car as if

## 4. (001)-continued.

there were no stroke of the tongue at all, but in its place the indeterminate vowel $\ddot{o}^{12}(0)$, or, as others pronounce, a guttural explodent, spiritus lenis. For the last it may be pleaded that in singing the English use the full $r$, which is the only one used in Scotland, Ireland and Wales. Whether the moaning $r$ is heard with the rowel, in place of an $r$ after it,-as Donders remarks of the low London horse,-in the Friesian dialeet, deserves investigration in loco." This glottal (T) occurs in Danish. Sce Mr. Sweet's valuable paper on Danish Pronunciation (Trans. of Philologieal Society for 1873-4, part 1, p. 109) where be also thinks that I have misunderstood the quotation from B. Jonson ( $200, c$ ), in considering that he alluded to (x) as the sound in the middle as well as at the end of words, and considers that Jonson may have alluded to the difference between trilled ( $r$ ) and untrilled ( $r_{c}$ ). I had merely thought that Jonson's illustrations were imperfect, and that he had given no ease of middle $r$, unless the middle $r$ in raver were doubled, as at present (ree.r.r.) or (ree'rr). This, however, seems impossible to determine, as Jonson's voice is hushed.

In rapid speaking forr becomes quite ( $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{A}}$ ), and in "four or five," we have most frequently (fa'rafa' $i$ vf, ) or even (fa ${ }^{2}$ refar $i \cdot \mathrm{rf}$ ).
(fool). The tongue being put ready for ( 00 ) or ( AA ). while ( $f$ ) is said with the lips, the glide to (oo) is very brief, but still the (foo) is quite different from ( $f, 00$ ). The glide (oo.I) or ( $\sigma 0$ ') is very close and distinet, but the rowel is not shortened, when under force. Mr. Bell's (for) arises from his habitually negleeting to mark the length of the first vowel of a diphthong. As a rule all our peeuliar diphthongs (iii, éex, óos, úus, éei, cous) have the first vorrel intentionally long, and our usual diphthongs ( $\partial^{\prime} i, a^{\prime} i, \partial^{\prime} u$, iú) frequently lengthen the second vowel, as Hart marked them (152, a). But Englishmen constantly pronomice a diplithong very bricfly indeed, so that this length is relative to that of the whole diphthong, considered independently, not to that of the syllable in which it oceurs or of other syllables in the word.
5. FIVE, Bell's (fáiv), my (foriv).

(f). Sce No. 4.

( $\left.\partial^{\prime} i\right) \cdot \operatorname{Sce}(107, b a$ to $109, a$ and $234, c b)$, for the various theories of the sound of this diphthong in English; and $(287, c$ to $291, c)$ for the Scotch sounds, and ( $295, c$ ) for the Dutch $i j$, ei. After much attention to the habits of English speakers, I believe the last element to be really (i), not (i), althnugh I have generally written (oi). This must be regarded as rather a rough symbolisation, the mark of stress not being inserted. In the present chapter, where very aceurate analysis is aimed at, I shall almost invariably employ the manner of marking diphthongs already explained ( $419, c$ ), so that every diphthong or triphthong will have the acute accent on or after (according to typographical convenience) the element which bears the stress, and the adjacent elements glide on to or from that element. Hence Mr. Melville Bell's "glides" p. 15 , $5 c, 5 l$, are represented by (i, v), simply with an acute on the adjoining letter, so that (ái, áu) preeisely transliterate his symbols. But Mr. Bell's "glides" leave it in doubt whether the second element is (i, u) or (i,u), and these, with many more niceties, are perfectly indieated by the present notation.

The first element of the long $i$, as I speak, seems to be (o) ; but when I try to lengthen it for analysis, I seem to take (ah), which has the same position of the tongue, but a wider opening behind. I certainly do not say (ái, aii). I oceasionally and but rarely hear (ai) from educated people, and have never noticed (ái) from them. As a greybeard, I am constantly asked by ehildren in Kensington Gardens, to tell them the "time." From them I frequently hear (á $i$, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime} \imath$ ), and I have heard the last from edueated women. Irishmen may say ( $\mathrm{ci}^{2}$, oh'i), but I have not been able to analyze the sound. It seems to me that Irishmen have a peculiar method of "widening," or enlarging the pharynx, ete., which gives a remarkable effeet to some rowels. Indieating this by an inferior ( $2_{2}$ ), the Irish sound appears to me (ar ${ }^{\prime}$ i). This is, however, a matter of local or individual habit, requiring considerable study to

## 5. (a'i)-continued.

ascertain satisfactorily. English singers say (ai $i$ ), and in singing to a long note seem to sing (áaah-i), the chief stress resting on (a) and chief length on (aah), with (i) and the glide up to it very short. The sound in English is hence indeterminate, but those who have learned Greek generally distinguish two values, high and low. The high is $\epsilon \ell$, one of the forms (a'i, áni, a'i); the low is $\alpha u$, one of the forms ( $a i, d i$ ). The words cye, aye are now so distnguished (a'i, ái), but the pun on "the noes and the ayes, -the nose and the eyes," sufficiently shews that the distinction need not be insisted on now, as Shakspere's pun on $I$, eye, aye (112,bc), shews that he also heard them much alike. There are other diphthongs approaching this, with final (y) or (o), but I have not observed them as varieties of (2i) in English, ( ${ }^{\prime}$ 'y) occurs in Dutch houp, and (xh'i) in Dutch lui, (xh'y) in Dutch huis (Donders, Phys. d. Spr. pp. 15, 16 ; see also Land, op. cit.), correcting my appreciation as (a'y) on (235, $d$ ). Observe the Norfolk ( $y^{\prime} y$ ) in ( $138, c$ ). Diphthongisation confounds originally perfectly distinct vowels. When (i) once admits an antecedent deeper sound, we get the series (ii, éi, éi, éi, æ’i, ái, áai, áa', aa), till (i) has disappeared. And by varying (i) into (y) there is a tendency to pass to (u) and hence get into variants of ( $u$ ), while by broadening (a) to (a) we are at once bronght into the ( $\dot{a}$, oh' $i, o^{\prime} i$ $A^{\prime} i$ ) series, which also comes from (úi, ú $i, u \mathfrak{u} i$, ó $i$, ó ó, o' $i$ ). All these changes, actually observed in practice, are of great philological interest. Their proper bearing cannot be properly appreciated without studying our dialectal vowel relations. Mr. Bell has not iutroduced an example of the last or (oi) series among his key-words. It is by no means widely known in the (ói) form. In older English we had two forms (úi, oi). The former regularly became (a $a^{\prime} i$ ) in the xyir th century, and remains in one or other of the many forms of this diphthong vulgarly and in several dialects. The scoond generally appears dialectally as (ói, o ${ }^{\prime} i, A^{\prime} i$ ), but is occasionally assimilated as (ái). Now by a converse assimilation, educated English, orthographically misled no doubt, has, within the last hundred years, reduced all the original (ai) set of ( $a^{\prime} i$ ) sounds to ( $\partial^{\prime} i, A^{\prime} i$ ), which is

## 5. (コ'i)-continued.

far worse than the derided Irish, or provincial pronunciation of $i$ as one of this series, because the educated pronunciation is simply an orthographically superinduced mis-pronunciation, and the other is an organic development: yet one is upheld and the other ridiculed. Educated ignorance is always absurd.
(v). The buzz of (f). It is remarkable that though this sound is so easy and common in English, French, and Italian, it should generally be found difficult. The observations of Merkel (Phys. d. mensch Spr. pp. 21112) shew that althongh he knew (f), he had no proper conception of ( V ), which Bräcke and Lepsius claim for German w. He says: "(f) cannot as such be vocalised or combined with vibrations of the vocal chords; the organs are obliged, in the attempt, to assume an intermediate position between that of ( ph ) and that of $\langle\mathrm{f})$, and to separate so far that they can occasion no sensible noise (erhebliches Geräuseh). When then sonant breath is driven through them, we hear a sound, which is scarcely at all (fast gar micht) distinct from (bh), but for which the lips are not exactly opposed, the under lip being somewhat retracted under the upper lip," and hence he does not distinguish (v) by a separate sign. But all Englishmen can press the lower lip firmiy against the upper teeth and buzz, that is, produce the effect of a mixture of vocalised and unvocalised breath. The way in which (v) can shade into (bh) is remarkable $\left(549, a, d .518, b, d^{\prime}\right)$. With reference to the remark on Sanscrit $v$ on p. 518, the following citation from Prof. Whitney (Atharva-Veda Prâtic̣âkhya, text, translation and notes, New Haven, U.S., 1872, p. 26) is important: "The Vâj. Pr. ... defines the same sounds, [the $v$ - series, $u, v$,$] as produced upon the$ lip and by the lip, and then adds farther that in the ntterance of $v$ the tips of the teeth are employed: the same specification as to $v$ is made by the Tâitt. Pr. (its commentatur explaining that in the utterance of that letter the points of the upper teeth are placed on the edge of the lower lips). . . The descriptions of $v$ given by the two Prâtic̣àkhyas of the Yajur Veda, as well as that offered by the I'aninean scheme (which declares its organs of
5. (v)-continued.
utterance to be the tceth and lips), leave no room to doubt that at their period the $v$ had already genevally lost its original and proper value as English w-as which alone it has any right to be called a semivowel, and to rank with $y$-and, doubtless passing through the intermediate stage of the German $v$, had acquired the precise pronunciation of English $v_{0}$ " That is, Prof. Whitney assumes, the series: 1. vowel. (u), with back of tongue raised and resonant lip opening; 2. (w), with back of tongue raised and non-resonant, restricted lip opening; 3. (bh), with back of tongue lowered, and similar (not identical) lip opening; 4. (v), with lower lip against upper tecth, increasing the buzz materially. On making the series ( $u-w-b h-v$ ) in one breath, the motion of the organs will become apparent, and though the sounds are constantly confused, yet it will be felt in the ribratory motions of the lips themselves that there is a material difference. On 9th July, 1873, having an opportunity of observing the pronunciation of Mr. M. O. Mookerjey, a native Bengalee gentleman, and not detecting any of the characteristic buzz of a (v), arising from the division of the stream of air by the teeth, I asked him whether he actually touched his teeth, and he said: "rery little." Now ( v ) with faint dental contact is scarcely scparable from (bh) without any dental contact. Hence the misty borderland between these two sounds. "There is no certainty in the accounts we have of English $v$ and German $w$ occurring in exotic languages, for when either is mentioned we hare no proof that the observer knew the difference." (Prof. S. S. Haldeman, Analytic Orthography, art. 462 .) It came like a revelation upon Mr. Kovács, an IIungarian, when he found he had to use his tecth for English (v). I had observed he had a difficulty with veal, which from his lips sounded to English ears as (wiil), being really (bhiil). When he first attempted to say (riil), he produced (bh*dhiil), making the buzz by bringing his tongue, instead of his lower lip, against the upper teeth. I asked him to make inquiries among his fellow-countrymen, and he assured me that none of then used the tecth for $f, v$, that is, all said (ph, bh). Yet Mr. Kováes had been long enough

## 5. (v)-continued.

in Eugland to preach publicly in English. And Lepsius makes Magyar $f, v=(f, v)$, and not (ph, bh) (Standard Alphabet, p. 220). These facts support Prof. Haldeman's dictum. I have seldom heard a German able to distinguish ( $\mathbf{w}, \mathrm{v}$ ). When Prof. Max Müller (whose $r$ is also uvular) is lecturing, I find much difficulty in distinguishing words and verbs, although he has been many years in England, is perfectly conversant with the language, and has attended much to phonetics. Prof. Haldeman says he can "distinguish across a room, whether a speaker of German uses the German $w$ or Eng. lish $v$, provided the voice is familiar" (Anal. Orth., p. 93, n.). See about the German professor ( $1093, b e$ ). In Dutch $v, w$ both oceur. Dr. Gehle seemed to pronounce $u, v, w$ as (yy, ree, bhee). Land (ibid. p. 30) says Dutch " $f$ and $v$ are not formed with both lips, but with the under lip and upper teeth, and have consequently a peculiar character for the ear, and for both reasons should be separated from the $p$-serics. The explosive consonant', -Slagconsonant, implying a perfect closure of the oral passage, a species of $b$, palaeotype ( B ), -" formed in the same place, is our usual $w$ at the beginning of a syllable, also usual in High German (ook in 't Hoogduitseh gebruihelijk), and is consequently distinguished from the nextmentioned labial woth by its place and mode of articulation. The Dutch language possesses, as well as the English, a mirmuring or buzzing (ruischend) $w$, which is nothing but $u$ with a stronger closure (sterkere vernaausing) than the rowel. The sound occurs exclusively after a $u$, huwen, that
 $=e^{3}$ uwen' $=$ (ну'u'теп, ro'u'wen, én'wen) apparently, "and must be distinguished from our usual $w$ in wat, wil. A low (platte) pronumciation only knows the labio-dental w." Now this explosive (B) is Brücke's theoretical $b^{2}$, see $(4, a)$, described as having the closure (Jersehluss) effected, not as in the usual $p$ with both lips, but with the under lip and upper teeth (Grundzüge, p. 34), and Brücke (ibid.) makes German $w=(v)$. Hence, Land's definition having puzzled me, I applied to Prof. Donders, who in a private letter, dated 11 th N゙ov. 1872, says: "Dutch $v$ and $f$ agree perfectly

## 5. (v)-continued.

with English $v$ and $f$," which Englishmen are accustomed to consider identical with French $v$ and $f$, and hence what follows is puzzling: "In French $v$ I think I perceive a little approximation to German $w$; the lips porhaps approach one another rather more, and the upper teeth do not so determinately rest on the lip (in de Fransche $v$ meenils eene kleine toenadering tot de Duitsche $w$ te herkennen: de lippen naderen elkander misschien iets meer, en niet zoo bepaaldt rusten de tanden der opperkaak op de lippen). Our wo agrees exactly with the German. At the end of words in ceuw, leeuw, the u makes it approach nearer to English $w$. ... I have been as much surprised as yourself at Land's opinion that $w$ can be the labio-dental explodent. At the conclusion he seems to refer exclusively to the low (platte) pronunciation. But I have not met with it, cren there. I donbt whether this labio-dental explodent occurs at all. When intentionally (met opzet) used, it sounds to me like an impure (onzuiver") $b$ or $p$." We have here a clear distinction between ( $t$, v, bh, w, u), as all occurring in one and the same language, by an observer of European reputation.

While this page was passing through the press, I had the interview already mentioned with Mr. Gupta (1096, a). I was particularly anxious to ascertain his views respecting Sanscrit $v$. $\mathrm{II} e$ made decidedly an English (v) with a faint pressure of the lower lip against the teeth, and did not seem to know that a $v$ sound could be otherwise produced. On my pronouncing to him first (vii, voe, vaa, voo, vuu), and next (bhii, bhee, bhaa, bhoo, bhun), the first with faint and the second with strong: buzz, so as to imitate the first, as a strong (bh) buzz is generally much weaker than any (v) buzz, he decidedly recognized the former and not the latter for the Sanserit sound. But then came two curious pieces of information, first that Sanscrit $v$ after a consonant is always called (w), and sccondly, that in Dengalce ( $b$ ) is said for bath $b$ and $v$ Sanscrit. The manner, however, in which he pronounced $v$ and $y$ after consonants gave, to my ear, the effect of stressless ( $u, i$ ) dipthongising with the following vowel, as (anusuáara), rather than (anuswáara). Instead then of an interchange of $(v, W)$, there $w, s$, to me

## 5. (v)-contimued.

(and I am anxious to express this as an individual opinion, which it would require very much longer and more varied experience to raise to the rank of a conviction), rather a reversion to the original vowel (u). We have already seen the great difficulties in separating ( $u, w$ ), suprà No. 1 , and we shall have several occasions again to refer to the effects of ( $u$ ), both on a preceding and following consonant, which appear to me identical in nature with those of (i) and (y), see No. 9 , below, and § 2 , No. 6, iv. The controversy is not likely to be readily settled. England, possessing ( $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{J}$ ), will use them for both consonants and stressless diphthongising vowels. Germany, possessing (bh, J) or ( $\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{J}$ ), will only use the latter (J) in this way, leaving the vowel (u) for the former. France, Italy, and Spain, having only vowels, will naturally use them only. Spanish (bh) is always thought of as (b), and hence would not be used. We thus get English kwa kya, German kua kja, French koua kia, Italian and Spanish kua, Kia, for the same sounds (kuá kiá), or many shades of sounds up to (kwa kja). Initially Spaniards use lue and Italians ua. But I hope that attention will be directed beyond national habits of writing or speaking, and real usages will be ultimately determined. It is to me probable that there will be thus discovered an unconsciously simultaneous usage of (kuá kwa kwa, kiá kja kJa), with perhaps intermediate forms, and a gradation of (wa bha va, sa gjha), passing imperceptibly into each othor through different degrees of consonantal buzz. As a mere practical rule (uá iá) is convenient, till the forms (u-ú, i-1́), indistinguishable from (uu, ii), would have to be reached on the one hand, and (vu, gjhi) on the other. The Bengalce confusion of $v, b$, Sanserit, seems almost to negative the existence of the (v) pronunciation of Sanscrit $v$, before the Bengalee rariety arose. Confusions of ( $b, r$ ) seem to occur in English dialects, but are very rare; (b, bh) arc often confused, as in Spanish, German, Hebrew ; the confusion of ( $b, w$ ) is quite possible, but not so casy. The Bengalee custom, therefore, to me scems to indicate an ouiginal (bh) rather than (w) consonant, at the time the Devanâgarî alphabet was invented. The use of pre-alpha-
5. (v)-continued.
betic stressless diphthongising (u-) I consider highly probable. The wide philological bearing of this distinction must excuse the length of these remarks.
(fo'ir). For the synthesis, the initial (f) hiss is short, and the voice docs not begin till it finishes, so that (fra'iv) is not heard. This must be clearly understood, as we have (szii) in German for sie, usually received as (zii); and we shall find that in whip, some hear (whwip). It is not the English habit in any words beginning with (f, th, s, sh) to interpose (v, dh, z, zh) by prematurely laying on the voice, or before the latter to emit a whisper by beginning with an open glottis, and thus deferring the laying on of the voice. Although it is possible that initial ( r , z) may have been generated from ( $f, \mathrm{~s}$ ) in Somersetshire, and previously in Dan Michel's dialect, by some such anticipation of the roice, followed afterwards by omission of the hiss (which of course was never written when the buzz was apparent), yet, as a rule, Englishmen avoid all deferred or premature laying on of voice, resulting from the open or elosed glottis, and in this respect differ from German. We never intentionally say (rhrii, lhlii, mhmii, nhnii), although we nave seen that Cooper (544, d) and Lediard ( $1046, a^{\prime}$ ) conceived that knce was called (nhnii), and shall find a trace of this remaining in the Cumberland dialect. This makes (whwii, Jhsii) suspicious. On the whole of this subject see No. 14 below. The case is, however, very different with final ( $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{zh}$ ). The prolongation of the buzz is apparently disagreeable to our organs, and hence we drop the roice before separating them, thus merging the buzz into a hiss unless a vowel follows, on to which the roice can be continued, or a consonant, which naturally shortens the preceding one. Thus in (fa'iv) the voice begins at the moment the hiss of (f) ceases, and before the position for (a) is fully assumed, it glides on to (o), glides off $(0)$ on to ( $i$ ), glides from (i) on to ( r ), continues through ( r ), and then, if the word is final, ceases, by the opening of the glottis before the (r) position is changed, producing (f), thus (forivf): A following rowel, as in five and six (fo'iv-en-sibs), pre-
5. (fo'iv)-continued.
vents this, but docs not shorten the length of (r), and the voice glides on to the ( E ). A following voiced consonant, as five loaves (fa'iv loovzs), shortens the buzz, and there is no glide of the voice, as that would give an additional syllable, (foiv'loorzs). A voiceless consonant, as five shillings (fa'iv shi liqzs), does not introduce an (f), or change ( F ) into (f). The voice ceases at the (v), spoken very shortly, and the hiss begins at (sh), so that there is a clear discontinuity, and no Englishman feels a difficulty in what is to a German or Dutchman nearly insuperable. The extremely different habits of different nations in the change of roiced to voiceless forms, and conversely, and the systematic way in which they have been hitherto ignored, although forced on the attention of comparative philologists by the Sanscrit distinetions of pada and sanhitâ texts, give much linguistic importance to such observations, minute as they may appear. Sec the Duteh custom in No. 9, (b).

## 6. SIX, (siks.)

(s). The hisses with central passage are so various in character that it is extremely diffieult to distinguish them. They seem to form two groups: (s) in which the tongue is more forward and the back of the tongue not hollowed, and (sh) in which the tongue is more retracted and the back is hollowed. This general difference is best felt on taking some common words containing (s) or (sh) or both, as swiss, swish, swishes, wishes, session, sash, slush, (swis, swish, $s w i$ shezs, wi shezs, se shen, sesh, slosh), and interchanging ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sl}$ ) as (shwish, shwis, shw $i$ shesh, shwi sesh, wi sesh, she sen, shres, shlos). We may also pronounce them in immediate suecession, as (poze'sshen) possession, properly (paze sheu). Try also to say (s-shii, s-shaa, s-shuu), which are easy, and (sh-sii, slı-saa, sh-suu), which are difficult, at least to my organs. Now, so far as I can judge, any variety of the forward (s) and any variety of the baekward (sh) would be intelligible in English, and I do not think that we naturally know much about the rarieties. I think however that ( $s$, sh $)$ and ( $s$, sh), written ( $75,7 \mathrm{sh}$ ) on ( $800, b^{\prime}$ ), are really kept apart. If we say gas, cats, con-

## 6. ( s )-contimued.

tinuing the $s$ skarply, and being rery careful to keep its position in cats, I think we hear (gæsss, kæt, $s_{s} s$ ), and after a little practice we may even say ( k , s, which will not rhyme to (gæs). This will be more distinct when we say (ke,t,s), the tip of the tongue then coming very close indeed to the back of the front teeth, while in (kæt,s) it is behind the back of the upper gum (1096, $c$ ), and in (gæs) it may lie behind and between the teeth, or reaily press against the lower gums, the hiss being between the hard palate and the middle of the tongue. If we hiss a tune, without quite whistling, with the lips open, producing the difference of pitch by the mere motion of the tongue, we shall find great varieties in the position of the tonguc, and that the pitch is highest when the tip of the tongue is forward and near the gums. We shall find also that the tongue can be retracted considerably without destroying the (s) effect, provided the breath be not allowed to resound in the hollow behind the tongue, which immediately produces the effect of (sh), and that the central aperture be not checked or divided, the former giving ( t ) and the latter a lisp, nearly (th). I think there has been some error about the Spanish $z$ on ( $802, d .4, a b$ ), and that it is not ( $s$ ), as there stated, and as Mr. Melville Bell, who has been in Spain, makes it (Visible Speech, p. 93); but that it is (s $\S$ ), using ( $(\S)$ as on ( $11, d c$ ), that is, a divided (s), with perhaps only a slight central check, produced by bringing the tip of the tongue very gently against the gum. In this case the buzz would be (z§). Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte says that the true Castillian $s$ is the Basque $s$; and as he pronounced this $s$ to me, it sounded like a retracted ( $s$ ) with a rattle of moisture. The Andalusian $s$ is, he says, perfect. The (s) sound of $c, z$ is not acknowledged in Spain (802, d) at all, although heard in Sparish America. See further in No. 10, (sh).

Note also the drunken tendency to confuse (s) with (sh) in England, clearly indicating the greater ease of (sh) to organs which can produce it at all. To an Icelander, Welshman, Dutchman, Spaniard, Greek, (ih) presents great difficulties. Note in upper German, the parent of the literary high German, not only the tendency to initial (shp,

## 6. ( s )-continued.

sht, ) where (sp, st) only are written, as well as the spoken and written (shl, shr, shm, shn, shbh), but the final (-sht,) written $-s t$, which constantly crops up in vulgar German, and is almost as great a social sin in Germany as a "dropped aitch" in England. Note also that in English (shl, shm, shn, shw) do not occur, although (sl, $\mathrm{sm}, \mathrm{sn}, \mathrm{sw}$ ) are common, and that (shr-) offers difficulties to many English speakers, notably at Srewsbury in Srop-- shire. Note also that $s p-$ - st-, are lazily pronounced (shp-, sht-) by Neapolitans. Note that (sh) seems to be a derived sound in the greater part of Europe, although existing in Sanscrit, but is frequent in Slavonic languages. In Hungarian (sh) is so much commoner than (s), that the simple $s$ is used for (sh), and the combination $s z$ for (s); while $z, z s$ are ( $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{zh}$ ). The ( zh ) is a very rare form in Europe, and has been only recently developed in English. In Bengalec all three Sanscrit letters, $¢$, $s k, s$, are confused in reading as (sh), while in vulgar speech simple ( H ) is used for (s), so that, straugely enough, this dialect has no (s) at all.
(i). See No. 3 (ii). No Englishman naturally says (siks) ; it would sound to him like (siiks) secks; and few are able to produce the sound without much practice. It is best reached by pronouncing seck, teat, apecp with great rapidity. This (i) is the touchstone of foreigners, especially of Romance uations. It occurs in Icelandic ( $544, c$ ), and is often heard in the North of Germany. In Holland short $i$ scems to have passed quite into (e), see Land (ibid. p. 17), as is geuerally the case in Scotland.
(k). The back of the tongue is very nearly in the ( u ) position, but rises so as to close the passage. It is not at all in the (i) or (y) position, but if an (aa) follows in English, many speakers habitually raise the tongne to the (i) instead of the (ir) position, producing (i), almost ( $\mathrm{k}^{* J)}$ ), see ( $(20 \overline{5}, a)$. This sound is still much heard in cart, quart, skiy, kime, ctc., but is antiquated ( $600, d .206, c$ ). There is not the same tendency when ( $\mathrm{i}, i$ ) follow or precede. This insertion of (i) before an (a) sound is rery prevalent dialcetally. See the theory in $\$ 2$, No, 6, iv.

## 6. (siks).

(siks). Keep the hiss (s) quite clear of the roice, begin the roice the instant that the (s) hiss ceases, glide on to (i), and dwelling very briefly on the vowel (its extreme shortness is charaeteristic), glide rapidly on to the (k), so as to shut off the voice with a kind of thump, opening the glottis at the same time, but allow no panse, and glide on to the hiss of ( s ) immediately. The glides from ( $i$ ) to ( $k$ ) and ( $k$ ) to ( s ), make the kind of check audible, and distinguish (siks) clearly from (sits, sips). It is quite possible, but not customary in English, to make (ks) initial, Xerses being (Z.k)siiz), not (Ks.1)ksiis). Similarly (ps, ts) never begin syllables in English, except by a glide, thus (praxis) gives (præksis), in which ( $k$ ) has one glide from (æ) and another on to ( s ), the syllable dividing between them.

## 7. SEVEN, Bell's (se‘tnn),

 my (se'r'n).(s). See No. 6, (s).
(e, e). These vowels differ in the height of the tongue. Mr. M. Bell determined my pronunciation ( $106, a$ ) to be (e), and considered it abnormally high, beliering the usual sound to be (e). Mr. Murray has the same opinion. Both agree that my (e) is the sound in fair (feex), and that it differs from fail (feel), any presumed diphthongal character of the latter being disregarded, as (i) does from (i). Mr. Bell gives ell as (El) English, (E'l) Scoteh, and makes French vin $=($ vea $)$. The latter to my ear is nearer (ves), but the French have no (e), and hence (E) is their nearest non-nasal. It is possible or even probable that my ear is deceived by my own practice, but I certainly know, from long residence in the countries, the German $\ddot{a}$ in spräche (shpree $/$ hve), the Italian $e$ aperto in bene (berne), the French ê in bête (beet) and occasionally (bet), and all these sounds appear to me much deeper than any usually uttered by educated Southern Englishmen. Since the difference was pointed out, I have paid much attention to such speakers, and my own impression is that (e) is much commoner than (E). I eertainly occasionally recognize ( E ), but it always strikes me as unpleasant. The three sounds $(e, \mathrm{e}$,

## 7. (e, e)-continued.

E) form a series, and if the usual English $e$ short is deeper than my (e), it is not so deep as the foreign sounds just described. Mr. Minrray (Dialects of S. Scotland, pp. 106, note 2, and 239) has felt obliged to introduce new signs, for which he uses acute and grave accents ( $e ́$ é, $\grave{e}$ è), but as the acute accent has been used in palacotype to mark the element under force in diphthongs as ( $\mathbf{u i}$, u $i$ ), some other notation is requisite. Mr. M. Bell (Vis. Sp. p. 77), after describing his 36 vowels, says, "Other faintly different shades of rowel sound are possible; as for instance, from giving a greater or less than the ordinary or symmetrical degree of lip modification. Even these delicate varieties may be perfectly expressed by the modifiers [as a certain set of Mr. Bell's symbols are called, because they 'modify' the meaning of the symbols to which they are subjoined, the four principal 'modifiers' being called] 'close,' 'open,' 'inner,' 'outer,' or by the 'linked' symbols; but such compound letters can never be required in the writing of languages, except to show the curiously minute accuracy with which these plastic physiological symbols may be applied." Mr. Bell (ibid. p. 55) had defined his 'close' and 'open' signs, which are those on p . 15 suprà, col. 9, lines $l, m$; as follows: "The sign of 'closeness' applied to any of the preceding consonants denotes a narrower aperture, with inereased sharpness of sibilation and percussiveness on learing the configuration; and the sign of copenness' denotes a widened aperture with consequent dullness of sibilation and lessened percussion. Thus in forming (ph) with 'closeness' a mere thread of breath issues through the narrow crevice between the lips-as in blowing to cool ; and in forming (ph) [with 'openness'] the breath flows through the wide orifice with the effect of a sigh on the lips. The latter effect is interjectionally expressive of faintness or want of air." Mr. Bell identified my (.) and (,,) with his signs of 'closeness' and 'openness' respectively; but 1 meant and used them for signs of increased and diminished foree, independently of aperture: and hence the transcription of his signs on p. 15, column 9 , lines $l$ and $m$, by my (.) and (,,), is ineorrect. The 'inner' and 'outer' or the signs on suprà p. 15, col. 9 , lines
7. (e, E)-continued.
$i, k$, are those formerly expressed by ( 1 ト), and now by (, ).
The lip modifications of the rowels will be considered in No. 11 (AA). But the lingual modifieations, 'higher' and ' lower,' eonsisting principally in raisiug or lowering the tongue, seem to be most graphically expressed by superior and inferior figures, as ( $e^{1}, e, e_{1}$ ). If more degrees are considered necessary, it will be better to write ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}, \mathrm{e}^{11}, \mathrm{e}^{111}$ ) rather than ( $e^{1}, \mathrm{e}^{2}, \mathrm{e}^{3}$ ) as the superior $\left({ }^{2},{ }^{3}\right)$ may be required for other purposes. The signs ${ }^{1}$, may also be conveniently used for Mr. Bell's 'closeness' and 'openness' generally, which may now be combined with the signs of force, thus his close (ph) will be (. $\mathrm{ph}^{1}$ ), when the breath issues forcibly through a narrow crevice formed by raising the underlip, and (..ph ${ }^{1}$ ), when it issues feebly ; while (. $\mathrm{ph}_{1}, \ldots \mathrm{ph}_{1}$ ) indicate great and small force of issue through a wide opening, formed by depressing the underlip.

There are no doubt many other modifications, which would render intelligible such sigus, as: (e) the tongue drawn more back for 'inner' (e), and $(\mathrm{e})$ the tongue further advanced for 'outer' (e), or ( $\mathrm{e}^{2}$ ) more hollowness at the back of the tongue for 'hollow, (e), ( $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ ) greater widening of the throat for 'guttural' (e), as was already sug. gested for the Irish modification of vowels ( $1100, d^{\prime \prime}$ ), where the $\left({ }^{2}{ }_{2}\right)$ indicate "secondary" kinds of "widening,' in addition to those of Mr. Bell, $\left({ }^{2}\right)$ between the tongue and pharynx, $(2)$ in the pharynx only; and in comparing different dialects other signs may be necessary. It is also often difficult to say which of two vowels any new rowel sound which an observer may happen to note, and desires to symbolize, most resembles, and here we may resort to superior letters, as ( $e^{i}$ ), meaning "the sound seems to me most like (e), but I sometimes hear it approach to (i), and suppose it may be some 'intermediate' sound, which I cannot as yet determine further than by considering it as an (e) verging towards (i), and hence should preter noting as (c)," whereas (ie) would give the preference to (i). It is obvious that these are merely temporary signs, but they are useful in interpreting vague, or written accounts of 'intermediate' sounds, and, as such, will be hereafter employed in rendering Mr. Smart's symbols.
7. (e, ह)-continued.

Using a superior ( ${ }^{1}$ ) and inferior ( ${ }_{1}$ ) for Mr. Murray's acute and grave, we may read his note thus (ibid. p. 106): "As pronounced in the South of Scotland, it [the vowel in sail, say] is certainly opener than the French or English ai (e). But it is nearer to this (e) than to any other of the six front vowels ( $i$ i, e $\varepsilon, x$ e). A long and careful observation of the sounds of English and Scottish dialects, and collation with those of the Standard English, has convinced me that, in order to shew their precise values and relations, it would be necessary to make a more minute division of the vowel scale" than in Visible Speech (supra p. 15). Then, accepting the above notation for higher and lower or closer and opener, he says: "The Eng. $a i$ in wait being then (e), the South Sc. would be $\left(e_{1}\right)$; the close sound common in Edinburgh would be ( $e^{1}$ ). The S. Sc. sound in breae would probably be ratlier ( $e^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ) than ( $i^{\prime}$ ), as we are obliged to make it when only using the three vowels. The Sc. $y$ in hyll, byt, would probably be ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ) rather than (e), explaining how the diphthong $e y$ (éi) seems closer than aiy (éi), which it ought not to be if $y$ in byt (bet) were the exact 'ride' of ai in bait. In the round [labialised] vowels also, the very close o usedin Edinburgh, which, compared with my $o$, seems almost ( $u$ ), would probably be $\left(o^{1}\right)$, and the South Sc. 20 might be ( $0^{\prime \prime}$ ) rather than ( $u^{\prime}$ ). It need scarcely be said that no single language or dialect does ever in practical ase distinguish such fine shades; few idioms even find the three positions distinct enough ; none certainly distinguish the six sounds formed by the 'primaries' and 'wides' of any series (except as accidental varieties due to the character of the following consonant, or to the presence or absence of accent-never to distinguish words). It is only in comparing different languages or dialects that we find the exact quality given to particular vowels in one, intermediate between certain vowels in another, the one set of sounds grouping themselves, so to say, alongside of and around, but not quite coin. ciding with the other set." I quote these words to fully endorse them, and again shew the difficulty of phonctic writing. In particular the deeper (u), which may be (u) with an (0) position of the lips, or $\left(u_{0}\right)$ as we shall write,

## 7. ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{E}$ )-continued.

or an (0) with a higher tongue, that is ( $o^{1}$ ), is a sound fully appreciated by northern dialeetal speakers as distinet from (u), and sounds to my cars much more distinet from it, than ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{a}$ ) from (e, o).

To return to ( $c, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{E}$ ). If any of those English speakers whom I hear say (e) do really take a 'lawer' sound, it is rather $\left(e_{1}\right)$ than ( $E$ ); or if they are considered to take $\left(e_{1}\right)$, then the foreign sound is ( $E_{1}$ ) or even ( $E_{11}$ ). Prince L. L. Bonaparte separates the very open $\grave{e}$ of some French grammarians in accès, from the Italian $e$ aperto, and makes it the 'wide' of the latter. He identifies (E) with the Italian sound, but not ( $(x)$ with the French sound, so that ( $E_{1}$ ) would be the more correct representative of the latter. The distinction of three (e)-sounds, ( $c$, e, e) I find convenient, and I generally use (e) when I cannot satisfactorily determine the sound to be (e) or ( $\mathbf{E}$ ), that is (e) may often be considered as ( $e^{e}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{E}}$ ). I think the tendency of educated pronunciation, which affects thinness, is towards (e) rather than (E), and I should put down (e) as the regular Spanish and Welsh pronunciations of $e$, neither language haring apparently ( $e$, E). In Italian, (e) is replaced by ( $e$,玉); but I consider (e) to have been the old Latin $e$, though the Latin e may have been (ee). In French I think the open $e$ is rather (e) than (E), except under foree or emphasis, when, as just shewn, ( $\mathrm{E}_{1}$ ) may occur, but ( E ) is always the intention. The substitution of (e) for ( E ) is like that of (ah) for (a), which is also going on in the Paris of to-day. In the French conjunction et, now alwars (e), the romel was once ( E ), a sound now reserved for est.

> (r). See No. 5, (r).
('n). For the simple(n) see No. I, (n). Initial $n$ is seldom lengthened, though some will say (mmoo) for a dubious negative. When ( n ) forms a syllable by itself Mr. Bell considers it to be lengthened, and writes (in). I prefer to write (' $n$ ), and similarly ('l, 'm); but it is not uecessary to write ('1), as (. $)^{\text {) when not following a vowel }}$ necessarily forms a syllable. But seven can be pronounced in oue syllable (sevn),
7. ('n)-continued.
and is often so reckoned. It does not seem to be usual. Hence I write (se $\left.\cdot v^{\prime} \mathrm{n}\right)$. Orthoepists are much divided as to how far the use of syllabic (' 1, ' $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ ) is 'admissible.' In practice it is seldom that they are accurately distinguished from (el, em, en), as in principal, principle, both often called (primsipll). The tendency is clear towards syllabic ('l, ' $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ ), but there is much 'educated' or rather 'orthographic' resistance. Notwithstanding ags. $y f l$, clergymen insist on (ii•vil), and even say (de vil), see ( $81, d$ ), which we find Bp. Wilkins using (998, c). We have, however, scen the effect of the efforts of Dr. Gill's "docti interdum." At present it is 'safest' for those who have not an acknowledged literary or social position to use a rowel, as (xl, em, vn), but care must be taken not to have the clear vowels ( $x l$, æm, æn; el, em, en), which have a pedantic, puristic effect, and can be at most endured in public speaking from desire to be distinctly audible, never in ordinary conversation. See the remarks of Prof. Haldeman, prefixed to the acconnt of his pronunciation, below in this section.
(se•- ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ ). The glides from ( s ) to $(r)$ are as in (fa'iv). But ( $r$ ) glides on to vocal ( n ), so that in all eases there is a transitional vowel-sound heard betreen the buzz ( v ) and the nasal resonance ( 1 ).
8. EIGHT, Bell's (éit), my (ect).
(ee). We now come to a hotlydisputed point of English pronunciation. I differ entirely from Mr. Bell as to the habit of educated southern Englishmen. The diphthong (éi), or rather ( $e^{\prime} i$ ) and even ( $\mathrm{ic}^{\prime} i$ ), I have heard, and especially from Essex people, but certainly the compression of the first clement is unusual, and at most (éei) ean be insisted on. I have had oceasion to refer to this diphthongal pronunciation frequently. See ( $57, d$. 74, b. 106, a. 191, a. 234, a. 542, b. $\left.596 c^{\prime} .597, a\right)$. The sound is insisted on by Smart, who says, "The English alphabetic accented $a$, in the mouth of a well-cducated Londoner, is not exaetly the sound which a French mouth utters cither in fée or in fétc, being not so

## 8. (ee)-continued.

narrow as the former, nor so broad as the latter. Moreover, it is not quite simple, but finishes more slenderly than it begins, tapering, so to speak, towards the sound " of $e$ in me $(29 t, d)$. The two French words being (fee, feet), this would make the English (éei) or (ée Li), and this I do not at all recognize. The first element at least sounds to me (ee), and is generally distinctly recoguizable by its length. There are, however, Londoners, or persons living in London, who dispute the possibility of prolonging (ee), and who certainly immediately glide away towards (i). Dr. Rush (Philosophy of the Human Voice, Philadelphia, 1827, p. 40), who was a careful observer, says: "When the letter $a$, as heard in the word day, is pronounced simply as an alphabetic element. and with the duration which it has in that word, two sounds are heard continuously successive. The first has the well-known characteristic of this letter; and issues from the organs with a certain degree of fulhess. The last is the element $e$ heard in eve, and is a gradually diminishing sound." It is curious, however, that Prof. Haldeman (Analytic Orthography, Art. 391) does not notice this diphthong, but makes "the English ay in pay, paid, day, weigh, ale, rage," to be "short in weight, hate, acre, Amos, Abram, ape, plague, spade," and identifies it with German "wēh, rēh, jē, planēt, mēer, mēhr (more, but mähr tidings has $\hat{e}$ ), èdel. ēhre, jědŏch," and with Italian "e chiuso." He writes eight as $\breve{\rho} t$, or ( $e \mathrm{t}$ ). Still there is no doubt that French teachers hare a great difficulty with most English pupils, in regard to this letter, and complain of their (bon,te) being called (bóoutéei), etc.. but the audibility of this ( $-i$ ) differs with different speakers, and even with different words for the same speaker

Mr. Murray puts me quite out of court on this point, for in ny palacotypic rendering of the Hundr dth $\mathrm{I}^{\mathrm{r}}$ salm he. has changed my (ee, oo) into (éei, дои), saying (Dial. of S. Scot. p. 138, note): "I have ven ured to differ from Mr. Ellis's transcription only so far as to write the long $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{o}(c e i, 00 n)$. as they are always pronounced in the south, and as 1 seem to hear them from Mr. Ellis himellf, althongh he considers them theoretically as ouly (ee, oo)."

## 8. (ec)-continucd.

That is, according to bis obscrvations, whatever be my own subjective impression of my utterance, his subjective impression on hearing me say: name, aid, age, always, praise, gates, take, make; oh! so, know, approach, is the same as that which he derives from his own utterance of (néeim, éeid, écidzh, Aalwéeiz, préeiz, géeits, téeik, méeik; óou! sóou, nóou, epróoutsh). Now I have resided three years in Dresden, where long $e$ is uniformly (ee), and not (ee), and none of my teachers found that I drifted into (éei). I am also able to prolong an (ee) without clange, as long as my breath will last. I am not only familiar with hearing (éei) and even (éi), but I know precisely what movements are requisite $t$, produce them, and I have very carefully and frequently examined my pronunciation of this letter. I am inctined to ascribe Mr. Murray's impression that I always say (éei, óou) to his own South scotch use of ( $\left(e e_{1}, o o_{1}\right)$, which are 'lower' sounds than mine, sounds indeed which I recognize to be strictly different from mine, and not to correspond to any vowels that I am acquainted with practically. Mr. Murray cites both syllables of French aidé as h.ving a 'higher' form than the South Scotch; but Féline makes the first ai the "open ê" (e), thus (ede). He says also that "the chief difference" of the scotch from the bug ish "lies in the fact that it [the Sc.] is a uniform sound, not gliding or closing into ee, like the English-at least the English of the south; thus, English day > ee, scotch day-ay. This vowel is not recognized as stopped in English," but observe Haldeman’s $\stackrel{\rho}{ }$, " the vowel in whit, main, being as long as in worl, may. In Scoteh it oceurs hng and stopped, as in wayr, buythe, wäy, wät, tnil (weer, bedh, wee, wet, tel, the two last words being earefully distingushed from the English merit, tuil. (weet. ted) or wécit, tééil), and wet, tell, but pronounc d like the French éée" ( furay, p. 106.)

Now befire I compare my nw observations on my own and other edseated southeru promuciation, with tuse of such an acempleshed northern phometician as Mr. Hur.ay. I would deaw attentio 1 to a cmiar difl: enne of opinion among butchmen raw wing their own promachation. Pror Bon lers (op. cit.) uses the vowel seri 's i, $\epsilon, \varepsilon^{a}, a$,

## 8. (ee)-contimued.

of which $\boldsymbol{i}, e^{a}, a$, appear to be (i, E, a), though the last may be (a), and $e$ is either (c) or (c), probably the latter. Ilis examples are Dutch bier for $i$, beer for e, wèreld kèrel bëd for ea, and baar for $a$. When he comes to the diphthongs, he gives ci, which must be (éi) or (éi), and probably the latter, to the Dutch rowels in lecp, leed, lerk, leeg, etc., "with short imperfect $i$, not in lier, in which only $e$ is heard), with less imperfcet $i$ in hé, mee, and with perfect $i$ in dec'i for deed hij," and makes Mei hare the diphthong $e^{\alpha_{i}}=$ ( $\left.\mathrm{E}^{\prime} 1\right)$. Land (Over Uitspraak on Spelling), writing with especial reference to Donders, has three $e^{\prime} \mathrm{s}, c^{1}={ }^{a}{ }^{a}, e^{2}=e$ of Donders, and $e^{3}$, not in Donders. These three $e$ 's are clearly ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e}, e$ ), for although the two first are not well distinguished by the French $e^{1}=$ père, $e^{2}=$ frêne, téte, the third $\epsilon^{3}$ is made $=$ pré, été. Now of these he says ( p . 17) : " $e^{2}$. With us (bij ons) regularly long before $r$ (beer, meer), where in the pronunciation of others there is an aftersound of $i$ (waar bij anderen een $i$ naklinkt) in order to attain the $e^{3}$ of the low speech (ten einde deu plat nitgesproken $\epsilon^{3}$ te bereiken). In the dialeet of Gelders, $\epsilon^{2}$ is a separate vowel, playing its own part; with ns [at Amisterdam] it is only found under the influence of $r$." This is precisely like English (ec) in fair. "Our short i has also entirely passed over into $c^{2}$ : lid, mis, gebit; wherein the Linburgers alone seem not to follow us," as in South Seotch. Then he proceeds to say: " $t^{3}$, is with us always long: stcen, been, teed, hé, mee; never before an r, because $t^{2}$ is then substituted. In English and low Duteh (platte IIollandsch) $e^{3}$ is replaced by $c^{2 i}$, or cren $e^{2} i$, with the rariants mentioned by Donders under ci; and is then even heard before $r$, where the sound is broadened into ai in the Leyden mehair for mïnheer. 1 have heard the aftersound of $i$ corrupted into $j^{12}$, as $g e^{2} j \ddot{o g}^{12}$ l in place of geel," that is (ghe $\left.\cdot \mathrm{Jal}\right)$ for (gheel). Then going to the diphthongs, he says (p. 22): " $\epsilon^{1} i=\epsilon^{a} a_{i}$ in Donders, with shont $e$ : leit, beiden. In low speech (in platte spraik) corrupted to ai (in Amsterdam) or $c^{2} i$. In the last ease the $i$ is sometimes rery short in closed syllables, or entirely disappears, almost mint for meid.- $e^{2} i$, with short $e$, written $i j$ and $y$ by

## 8. (ee)-continued.

some for occult reasons: $m \ddot{j}(m y)$, Kirijt. In the province of Holland $e^{2} i$ becomes regularly $e^{l} i$, and is corrupted into ai. With long $e$ in low Holland speech (platte Hollandseh) in place of $e^{3}$, Douders's diphthong ei." Hercupon Kern, revicwing the two works (in De Gids for April, 1871 , P. 167), says of Donders: "The description aud transliteration of the diphthongs is accurate, except that the $e$, so called sharp $c e$, is not accurately rendered by $e i$. I however agree with Donders against Land that sharp ee is really a diphthong. But I cannot allow that such a diphthong occurs in leeg or mee. The ee in leeg and mee has the same sound as the $e$ in zegen, leden. Whereas in pronouncing leeg, mee, zegen, neem, nemen, and snch like, the relative position of the upper and lower jaws remains unaltered; in pronouncing ee in leed, leek, leen, steen, the nuder jaw adrances a little (springt de onderkaak iets rooruit). The physiologist cannot possibly fail to perceive the cause of this phenomenon. The same alteration in the position of the jars is perceived in the pronunciation of 00 in brood, boonen, hooren. To what extent this pronunciation must be considered the most usual or the best, we leave undecided; it is enough to shew that it does occur in our country, and that it deserves description." Of Land's $e^{2}$ he says: "He asserts that our rowel in meer is the French ê in fiêne, tête. Now not to mention that, to my ear, meer (mecsi) [more, most] and meer (water) differ in sound, it is doubtful whether any Dutchman uses the French sound in either of the two meer.s." The occhrrence of an (éei) or (éi) for a written $e e$, in a language so nearly related to English as Dutch, and the difference of opinion as to its pure or diphthongal value, seemed to me too remarkable to be passed over.

In my own pronumciation I think I never say (eii) or (ei), ending with a perfect (i), and that I seldom or never say (éei) or (éi), cnding with a perfect (i), and that when I approach to (éi), however short the diphthong may be, the first clement is longer than the last But I doubt whether I get as far as (éei), at the most I seem to reach ( $e^{e}+c^{1}$ ), showing a glide, and that in the process of "vanishing" the force of the voice decreases so much that it

## 8. (ce)-continued.

is very difficult to say what sound is produced; an effect shown by ('j). I admit, howerer, that in speaking English, and especially in such words as pay, may, say, before a pause, my (ee) is not uniform, but alters in the direction of (i). It is, however, necessary to distinguish grades of this alteration, as Donders has done. In the case of a following pause, it is the most marked ; but if a vowel or consonant follows rapidly, as play or pay, pay me now, I do not hear this "vanish" at all. I think also that I am inclined to this ranish before ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}$ ) in eight, weight, plate, paid, pain, but not so decidedly nor so regularly as in the former case. I am not conscious of the vanish before ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ). I think that generally the vanish ranishes when the utterance is rapid, as in ăorta, ăerial. So far as I have yet observed, my usage is much the same as that of other educated speakers, from whom I rarely hear anything like a real (éei), and this I attempted to note by (ee'j) or ( $e \in \neq j$ ), where (ee) glides into " palatalised roice" of some sort. Still there are speakers in whom it is marked, and especially when an ay has to be emphatic ordwelled upon, which practically brings it before a pause. I think that the reason why French teachers find such difficulty with English pupils is that the pupils altogether lengthen the vowels too much. I deprecate much Mr. Melville Bell's insisting on (éi) universally as a poiut of orthoepy, making the sound approach to one of the diphthongal $i$ 's, for such a pronunciation is so rare as always to be remarkable and generally remarked. An Essex man told me (Dec. 1872) that he was known everywhere by what-as I heard him-were his eyes. It turned out to be his pronunciation of long a. "I But," said he, "I can't hear it; I can't make ont the difference at all." Again, Mr. Brandreth, a county magistrate, informed me that on officially risiting the pauper schools at Anerley, near London, he found that fully half the bors made no difference between $\bar{a}$ and $\overline{\bar{j}}$, and could not even hear the difference when snch words as they, thy, were correctly pronounced to them. According to Mr. Murray, mūtātō nōmine dē mē fäbula narrātur !
8. ( t$)$.
(t). See No. 1, (n), and No. 2, ( $t$ ). When ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) are final, and before a pause, so that they are not immediately followed by a rowel on to which the voice can glide, or by a consonant, the ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) are made more audible by gliding them on to some unvocalised breath, written ( $p^{〔}, t^{6}, k^{6}$ ), on ( $10, b .56, b$ ), and whether this is already in the mouth, or is driven through the larynx, is indifferent; the latter is most audible, and will often assume the form of ( $\mathrm{pH}^{6}, \mathrm{tH}^{6}, \mathrm{kH}^{6}$ ). There may be a pause of silence between the glide on to ( t ) and this windrush, and this pause apparently lengthens the mute. It is not usual to note this added (•) or ( $\mathrm{H} \cdot$ ). It is not a French habit. French speakers either omit the final mute entirely, or add a mute $e\left(L^{\partial}\right)$. Using $>$ to represent the glide to, and < the glide from a mute, the following cases have to be noted in English, remembering that for English mutes the glottis is always closed.

Initial, pca, tea, key $=(\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{ii}, \mathrm{t}<\mathrm{ii}$, k <ii);

Medial after the force accent, peeping, eating, leaking $=(\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{i}>\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{iq}$, $\mathrm{i} ~>t<i q$, $\mathrm{li} i>\mathrm{k}<i$ q).
Medial, preceding but not following a rowel under the force accent, repay, pretend, aecuse $=\left\langle\mathbf{r i p}<e e^{\prime} \mathbf{j}\right.$ ', prit $<e^{\cdot n d}$, $\mathrm{ck}<i \mathrm{iun} \cdot \mathrm{zs}$ ).

Medial, preceding a consonant on to which it does not glide, that is, with which it cannot form an initial combination, adopted, pitfall, active $=$


Medial. doubled, a case of the last, distinguished however by a sensible pause marked ( $)$, eap-pin, boot-trce, book-case $=($ kie $\gg \mathrm{p}) \mathrm{p}<$ in, $\quad$ buu $>\mathrm{t})^{-}$ $\left.\left.\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{ri} i, \mathrm{~b} u^{\cdot}>\mathrm{k}\right) \mathrm{k}<e e^{\prime} j \mathrm{~s}\right)$.

Final, before a pause, cap, boot, book
 otherwise it is treated as medial, but may be emphatically doubled, as


These differences are not usually distinguished in phonetic writing, and from their regularity seldom require to be noticed. But irregularities must be marked, as (kæ>t) or (ket!) to shew the absence of the second glide ( $k: x>t<{ }^{\prime}$ ). Mr. Sweet's remarks on Danish syllabicatiou (Plrilol. Trans. 1873-4, pp. 94-112) must be carcfully

## 8. ( t$)$-conlinued.

considered by all who would enter upon these phonetic mysteries, which are far from having been yet fully revealed.
(cet, ée'jt). The rowel begins at onee, in properly spoken English, and is not preceded by any whisper. The whole organs are placed in the proper pusition for (eer), and the glottis is closed ready for voice, firmly, but not so tightly that the chords must be forced asunder by explosion. The vowel thus commences with a clean ellge, so to speak, noted thus (,ec), and here called the "clear attack" or "glotid," but by teachers of singing the "shock of the glotis." But if there is an air-tight closure which has to be foreed open, we have the "check attack" or "glottid," or "eatch of the glotis," the Arabic hamzà. noted thus (; $; e$ ), which is considered as a defeet in English speeeh, though common in Gernan. It is, however, not unfrequent to hear vowels commenced with a "gradnal attack" or "glottid," during which breath shades through whisper into voice, and the precise commencement of the rowel cammot be readily determined, and this may possibly have been the Greek "spiritus lenis," whieh will be noted thus (lee). In singing this produces " breathiness." It is not recognized in speech, but is possibly one of the causes of so-ealled a apiration and non-aspiration, and of the difficulty felt by so many English speakers in determining whether a vowel is aspirated or not. lt is mere carelessness of ntterance. But here it may be noted that these "glotidids" or "attacks" may also be "releases," that is, a vowel may end as well as begin "clearly." as (tuu), which is the reguar English form or with the ebeek or "catcli," as (tuu;). as frequently in Danisl before a subsequent consonant, or gradu illy, as (tuup). Now this gradnation consists. initially, in beginniny the vowel with the glottis open, closing it rapidly, during which the edres of the vocal chorls approach very closely before cuntact. producing first the effect of whisper, and then of roice, so that we have (" $e e+{ }^{\prime} e+e$ ). In ending we should get in reverse order. $\left(e+{ }^{\prime} \cdot t+\right.$ " $\left.t e\right)$. This is what is meant by the notation ( (eeq), or (tuml). Now if there be a little longer repose

## 8. (cet, ée'jt)-continued.

on the pure roiceless sounds, so that the ("ee) or ("un) becomes sensible, it is clear that ( $1 i^{i}, l^{e \epsilon} \mathrm{I}$ ) will appear to begin or end with a sound like ( Jh ), and ( $\quad$ uul, $\left\lceil^{\circ o \rho}\right.$ ) with a sound like (wh). This seems to be the origin of the Dauish terminational ( Jh, wh), while the initial forms generate the aspirates, or an approach to them, differing in the manner considered in No. 14, (wh). How far these terminations are usual in English, I am unable to say. There is often so much loss of force that it is difficult to observe. But certainly distinet ( Jh , wh) final are not frequent in received pronunciation ; and distinct ( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{wh}$ ) initial would be scouted at once as a rulgarly intruded aspirate. In No. 14, (wh), where the whole subject will be systematically considered, it will be seen that this final (1) represents the Sanscrit visarga.

After the vowel is commenced, it is continued a very short time, and glides either on to (i), as already explained, or on to ( t ). But if it glides on to ( $i$ ), it does not do so till its energy is much diminished, so that, in received pronumeiation, (ééj) never approaches the character of a close diphthong, as $i$ in five. or (éi), in which the (e) is strong and short and the force is continued on to the ( $i$ ), which may be lengthened and then die away. In ( $e^{\prime} e^{\prime} j$ ) the force dies away first, and the glide on to ('j) is scarcely audible, being absorbed into the glide on to ( t ). Als", as a long vowel, the (ee) or (éce $\mathbf{j}$ ) must have a very short glide on to ( t ). ludeed Prof. Haldemar's short (et) has the character of a long vowel, by the shortness and weakness of its glide on to (t) ; whereas a really "stopped" (e) would come strongly and firmly on to ( $t$ ), which would be "lengthened," as (et t ). It is more by the mode in which vowels glide on to following consonants, than by the actual length of the vowels, cousidered independently of their glides, that the feeling of length of rowels in closed syllables arives in English pronunciation. See Mr. Sweet's rule in No. 14, (p).

## 9. BOOK, (buk).

(b). The relations of mute or voiceless (b, d, g; to somant or roiced ( $p, t, k$ ) should be well under-

## 9. (b)-contimued.

stood. In English (p,ii, t,ii, k,ii) the voice begins with the clear attack (,) at the moment the closure is released. In (b,ii, d,ii, g,ii) the voice begins in the same way, before the closure is released, but for so short a time that the voice may be said to begin as the contact is released. Now Germans, when they really distinguish ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}$ ), ete., begin the voice in (plii, t iii, kii) with a gradual attack, giving a hiss; and they allow the voice to sound through the (b), etc., before the release of the closure, which may be written ('bii, 'dii, 'gii). The breath not being able to escape blows out the neck like a turkey-cock's, and hence is called a blow-olit-sound or Blählaut by German phoneticians, which we may translate inflatus. It is not possible to continue this inflatus long without allowing breath to escape by the nose; but to produce a real (m, n, q) after ('b, 'd, 'g), is not possible without producing a loud thud by the withdrawal of the urula from the back of the pharynx, requiring a strong muscular effort, because the compressed air in the mouth forces the uvula into very close contact with the pharynx. It is probable then that ('bmii, 'dnii, 'ggii), do not occur monosyllabically. But it is quite easy to begin with the nasal resonance, and then cut it off by the uvula, which has air on both sides, and hence can act freely. Hence (mbii, ndii, qgii) are easy, and have generated the sounds of (b, d, g) in modern Greek. Some phoneticians (I have forgotten to note the passages) even make ( $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ ) necessarily nasal. They are not so in English. But there is often a semi-nasal (b, , $\mathrm{d}_{\text {, }}, \mathrm{g}_{\text {, }}$ ) occasioned by insufficient nasal resonance, arising from catarrh, when the speaker iutends ( $m, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{q}$ ), but cannot perfect them, see (1096, $\left.d^{\prime}\right)$, and one of these, $\left(b_{6}\right)$, in perhaps a slightly different form, is an element of Westmoreland and Cumberland speech. It is possible entirely to cut off the voice before proceeding to the vowel, without creating the impression of a new syllable, hence (mpii, ntii, qkii) are possible, and seem actually to occur together with (mbii, ndii, qgii) in some South African languages. In English initial (b, d, g), however, nothing of this inflatus or nasality is customary. In middle Germany, where the distinc-
9. (b)-continued.
tions ( $p \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) are practically unknown, comparatively few being able to say (plii 'bii, t tiii ', dii), recourse is had to what Brücke and M. Bell consider as whispering instead of voicing, using ('bii, 'dii) only. Merkel, however, who is a native of Upper Saxony, where the sounds are indigenous, denies this, and asserts that he really says ('pii, ', tii) implosively. See (1097, $c^{\prime}$.) Observe that ('*kii) is not common in Saxony, because (knii, gjhii, ghaa) are heard. Perhaps also true (g) is heard initially; I do not feel sure. But certainly $k, g$ are always distinguished initially, and $p, b$ or $t, d$ are always confused initially, in Saxony.

When ( $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ ) are medial between two rowels, there is in English a complete passage of the voice through them, without any sensible sustention of the sounds, as baby, needy, plaguy (bee $\cdot>\mathrm{b}<i, \quad$ uii $>\mathrm{d}<i$, plee $>\mathrm{g}<i$ ), and there seems to be no slackening of the closure, and consequently no buzz, the sound being produced entirely by internal condensation of the air. In German, however, such (b, g) readily pass into (bh, gh), as schreibch, tage $=$ (shrai•bhen, taa $\cdot g h e$ ), of which the first is not, but the second is, received. But for (d), or rather (d), nothing of the kind occurs, neither ( $(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}$ ) nor ( $(\mathrm{dh}$ ) being developed. On the other hand, medial (d, dh), a coronal and a dental, but more often ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{dh}$ ), interchange dialectally ịn English. In Spanish (b, bh) are not distinguished even initially. That similar habits prevailed in Semitic languages we know by their alphabets, ב, 7, d, being (b bh, d dh, g gh) according to circumstances. The Euglish received pronunciation is therefore peculiarly neat, and more like Freuch and Italian in this respect.

Final (b, d, g), before a pause, are intentionally the same as when initial, the voice ending as the closure begins, or not being sensibly sustained during the closure; but the glide up to the consonant being continued into the closure, gives the vowel an appearance of greater length. Sometimes, however, the voice is sensibly prolonged during closure, and as this is uncomfortable, the closure is relaxed before the voice ceases, and we have effects like (beeb', diid', gieg'), or (beeb)b', diid $\mathrm{d}^{\prime}$, gæg $/ \mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ ), which are often pain-

## 9. (b)-continued.

fully evident in public speakers. I frequently noticed these sounds in the declamation of the late Mr. Macready. It is often greatly cexaggerated in prorincial tragedianism. It is, however, so far as 1 have observed, not customary to drop the roice before releasing contact, and then to open apon a windrush, as (beeb)p ${ }^{6}$, diid $t^{6}$, gerg, $k^{6}$ ). This would, I think, produce to an English ear too much of the effect of simple (beep', diit', gek'), which would be mintelligible. It seems however probable that this is the histury of the German and Dutel habit of always taking these finals as mute. In Dutch indeed this is slightly controlled by the action of the following consonant. This action is quite unknown in English, except in such a word as ceppoard = (kə bad), but deserres to be noted as occurring in so closely related a language. The Dutch rule according to Donders (op. cit. p. 23), which is corroborated by Land (op. cit. p. 31), is as follows:-
"With the exception of the nasals, when two consonants come together, howerer different their character, both must be voiced, or both voiceless. Whenerer in two syllables or words spolen scparately, one would be roiced and the other roiceless, one must be altered to agree with the other, according to the following rules.
1). "Before voiced $b$ and $d$, every consonant is roiced, as, zeepbak, opdoen, strijkbout [this is the only way in which $(g)$ can occur in Dutch], stiefbrocder, daarbij, stikdouker, misdaad, hegdoorn, etc. [where $p, k, f, r, s, g=$ (b, g, v, r, z, ghi).] But $t$ sometimes remains, as : 't ligt daar, pronounced 't licht taar [compare Ormin's fatt tiss (491, bc), patt tezz (491, c)].
2). "Voiced $w, v, z, g, j, l$, and $r$ lose their roice after every preceding consonant, except $r$. Tre pronounce: rroetfrouw, bnurvrouw, - stiefsoon, voorzoon, - afchrond, voorgrond, loopjongen ( $j j$ roiceless), roorjaar ( $r j$ roiced), etc. [where tf, rr, - fs, $r \sim$, $-f c h, r g,-p j, r j=(\mathrm{tf}, \mathrm{rv},-\mathrm{fs}, \mathrm{r} z,-\mathrm{fkh}$, rah, -psh, r.s), the original Dutch letters being, $t r, r r,-f z, r z,-f g, r g,-p j, r j$, respectively.]
3). "Before the nasals all consonants except $r$ are or become voiceless. [This rule is questioned by Land.]

## 9. (b)-continued.

"After a nasal each consonant preserves its own character."

Land remarks, that the first rule does not hold in English, where Bradford and platform, backbone and bugbear are difterently treated; and that according to the same rule every final consonant in Dutch is pronounced voiceless, as bet. breet, ik hep, ik mach; but that it is different in English, where back and bag, hat and had, cup and cub, are carefully distinguished; and so, he adds, in Friesic we hear breed, and not brect.

In English the difference between such combinations as the following is felt to be so great that we instinctively wonder at any ears being dull enongh to confuse them, unaware how very dull our own ears are to distinctions which other nations feel with equal acuteness : pip bib; pat pad, bat bad; puck pug, buck bug; tip dip, tub dub; tuck tug, duck dug; give me the bag do, and him a bag too, and then give it me back do, and his back too. A German or a Dutchman would flounder helplessly and hopelessly in these quicksauds.
(u). This rowel .differs from (u), as (i) from (i), and just as an Englishman finds (bit) very difficult and (bit) casy, so (buk) is to him easy, and the Scotchman's (buk) so difticult, that he puts it down as (buuk), heard in Yorkshire. Distinguish also English pull (pul) and French poule (pul) from each other, and from pool (puul), heard for pell in Shropshire. The throat is widened for ( $u$ ). The well-marked ( $\sigma^{1}$ ) or ( $u_{0}$ ), already mentioned ( $1107, d^{\prime}$ ), must be borne in mind. To a sonthern Euglishman (bo ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{b} u_{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{k}$ ) are riddles; at least, very thick, fat, clumsy pronnnciations of his (buk), which, to a Scot, is itself a thick, fat, clumsy pronunciation of (buk). Refinement of pronunciation has entirely local valuc. It is easy to pronounce ( $u$ ) without rounding the lips, and this must be the way that a cuckoo gets out his cry, or a parrot says (pus), as I distinetly heard one call out the other day (4th May, 1873). It seems as if we produced the roundness by contracting the arches of the soft palate at the entrance to the mouth. This mode of "rounding" I propose to mark by ( ${ }^{4}$ ), thus ( $\mathrm{p}^{4} u^{4} \mathrm{~s}$ ), implying

## 9. (u)-continued.

that ( $p u$ ) are imitated in this manner, the lips remaining open. See (1116, $b^{\prime}$ ).
(k). The back of the tongue is raised to contact with the soft palate so much in the position of (u) that the glide is short, sharp, and but little marked. The relation of the gutturals $(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g})$ to ( $\mathrm{un}, \mathrm{uu}$ ) renders the labialisations ( $\mathrm{k} 火, \mathrm{~g} w$ ) easy and common ( $208, c$ ), and there is no difficulty in disposing the back of the tongue for (u), while the tip is in the $(\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d})$ position, hence (tu, d $w$ ) are also easy (209, a). Prof. Whitney, whose phonetic appreciation is acute, and who has much studied pronunciation, regards these "labial modifications of rowels and consonants" to be "a special weakness" on my part and Mr. Bells. "With one who can hold the initial consonant sound of dwell, for example, to be not a $w$ with a $d$ prefised, but a labially modified $d$, we should not expect to agree in an analysis of the wh sound " (Oriental and Linguistic Studies, Ncw York, 1873, p. 271). I was, however, never satisfied with the analysis (trist, dwel). The passage from ( $t$ ) to ( $w$ ) created a glide which I could not recognize as usual. I tried (tuist, duél), which are easir, but then I missed the characteristic (w) effect. It was not till on studying Mrr. Bell's Visible Speech, and finding him classify (w) as a mised gutturalised labial, and consequently ( $g w \mathrm{~h}$ ) as a mixed labialised guttural, that the explanation occurred to me, which is simply that "wherever the position of a consonant can be practically assumed at the same time as the positions for ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ), they are so assumed by speakers to whom these combinations are casy." This brought palatalisations and labialisations under the same category. As we have ( $\mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{gj}, \mathrm{tj}$, $\mathrm{dj}, \mathrm{lj}, \mathrm{nj}$ ), and might have (pj, bj), which apparently oceur in Rinssian, so we might have $(\mathrm{k} w, \mathfrak{g} x, \mathrm{t} w, \mathrm{~d} w, \mathrm{l} w, \mathrm{n} w)$, and even ( $\mathrm{p} w, \mathrm{~b} w$ ), which are related to ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}$ ) much as ( kj , gj) are to ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ). I found (ku, $\mathrm{g} u, \mathrm{t} u, \mathrm{~d} w$ ) the most satisfactory explanations to me of English sounds; and I seemed to recognize them in French quoi, toi, dois (k $u^{a}$, twa, du $u^{\circ}$ ), and similarly loi, noix, roi (lua, nua, rua). It was satisfactory to me that Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte, who

## 9. (k)-continued.

must certainly be allowed to understand French pronumciation, adopted these views, added to my list soi, choi.x, joie, (swa, shwa, zhwa), and completed the conception by admitting palato-labialisations, arising from attempting to combine ( $y$ ), or ( $i, u$ ) simultaneously, with consonants, as in lui, muit, fui, chuintant, juin, which would have to be written (lwji, nuji, fuji, shujestas, zhwjen). As in ${ }^{\text {r }}$ rench ( $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{nj}$ ) are said to be mouillée, so he terms ( $1 w, \mathrm{n} w$ ), etc., velouté́, and ( $1 火 \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{n} w \mathrm{j}$ ), etc., fuitée. Theoretically the existence of such combinations as ( $1 \mathrm{j}, l^{l}, \mathrm{l} \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{j}}$ ), etc., is perfectly conceivable and executable. The only question is, are they used in such words ? This is a matter of observation. Prof. Whitney observes (twist, dwel) ; I observe in myself, at least, (twist, duel). Mr. Bell writes ( $\mathrm{t} \pi$, dw), and also (kw), although he adıits ( $\mathrm{k} u \mathrm{~h} \mathrm{~h}$ ), the Scotch $q u h$, which bears the same relation to ( $\mathrm{k} w$ ) as ( kh ) to ( k ). The simple character of ( $\mathrm{k} w$ ) may have prevented the $q u$ from making "position" in Latin; but the initial character of ( kw ), like that of a mute and a liquid, may have had a similar effect. We have $(\mathrm{g} w)$ in guano (guaano). Sometimes there is both palatalisation or labialisation of the consonant and an inserted rowel. Thus the old-fashioned cart, regard, shy, are seldom pure (kjaa't, rigjaa'd, skjo $\quad i$ ), but often (kjiáa't, rigjíáa'd, skjia'i), and it is possible that quill, quell, quuntity, may be oceasionally (kuuil, kwuél, kwuo'n tití), but I have not noted it. On the other hand, Italian quale, quanto, questo, sound to me rather (kuá'le, kuántuh, kuéstuh), than (kwa-) or (kwá-), etc. The same is probably the case in Spanish cuunto, etc. But I doubt a real (kwa-) anywhere. One great source of difference between German and English quell seems to arise from the two German cousonants, thus (kbhel).
(buk). The voice begins in (b), and is carried through ( $k$ t to $(k)$, where it is sharply and suddenly cut off. For the effect of ( k ) final sce No. 8, ( t ).
10. WATCH, Bell's (watsh), my (wots shi).
(iv). See No. 1, (w).

## 10. ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{0}$ ).

(A, 0). With Mr. Bell, I used to consider that wa represented (wa), rather than (wo), and I have previously given (watsh) as the pronunciation ( $56, a$ ). But on further observation I think that (WA) is not so common as (wo), and that when (WA) is used, the (A) is apt to become of medial length, so that the unpleasant drawling effect (wast,sh) results, where I introduce a new method of marking the leugth of a vowel in palaeotype. Hitherto I have only used (a, aa) for short and long, and (aaa) for protracted. As this is not cnough for theoretical purposes, I propose to use ( ${ }^{a}, a, a^{n}$, aa, aa $a^{a}$, ana) as a scale of six, very short, short, medial, long, very loug, protracted. This superior vowel must not be used after another vowel of a different form, as that would militate against the notation ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}}$ ) on (1107, d), so that if we wished to write short (e) followed by very short (i), we must write (e $i$ ), according to the usual notation. The short vowel-sound in watch is almost invariably (0) in England, but the medial sound is perhaps common in America. The difference between (A) and (0) is very slight, and both are nearly peculiar to English. Practically (A) belongs to the (a) group, and (0) to the (o) group. Foreigners hear (A) as (a) or (a), and (0) as (o) or (o). The differences are, however, important. The rowels (A, 0) differ from $(0,0)$ strictly by the depression of the back of the tongue, which, in the diagram ( $14, c$, No. 7 ), is not given low cnough for my pronunciation. But (A) differs from (a) by a slight "rounding," the corners of the lips being brought a little together for (A) $(14, d$, No. 12), whereas for (a) they are quite apart. Also according to Mr. Bell, (A) is a primary and (a) with (0) are "wide" vowels. I must own that (A) feels to me when speaking "wider" than ( $\bigcirc$ ), that is, to be pronounced with an opener pharynx. Still the concinnity of the vowel system points to the other arrangement, as shewn on p. 14, and I am probably wrong. The various degrees of opening of the lips in rounding should be observed, the three degrees, p. 14 , diagram Nos. 10, 11, 12, being in English reserved for ( $u, o, A$ ). But in Danish we have varicties. Thus Mr. Sweet obserres (Philologieal Trans. 1873-4, p. 102) : "In Danish the two
10. ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{0}$-contimued.
lower articulations ( $0, A$ ), while preserving the same tongue position as English and most other languages," [that is, those of diagram Nos. 4, 7], "have undergone what may be called a ' lippenverschiebung,'" [lip-prolation, may be an admissible translation, prolation being nearest to verschicbung], " (o) being pronounced with the labialisation or 'rounding' of (u), and (A) with that of (o), (u) itself remaining unchanged." [I propose to write this effect thus ( $o_{u}, A_{0}$ ), the principal form giving the position of the tongue, and the subscribed that of the lips. Note the different meaning ascribed to the superior ( $o^{\mathrm{U}}$ ) or a sound between ( 0 ) and (u), but apparently more like (o), given on ( $1107, d$ ), and note also the fourth kind of rominding just symbolised by ( ${ }^{4}$ ) on (1114, $\left.d^{\prime}\right)$ ]. "This abnormal rounding gives a peculiar cavernons effect to the vorvels, and makes it difficult, especially for a foreigner, to distinguish them accurately,' See (799, d). Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte seemed to me to imitate the cavernosity by protruding the lips in a funnel shape, which we may write $\dagger,(11, c d)$, so that he made Swedish $o$ and $u$ to be ( $u \dagger, y \dagger$ ). Mr. Sweet says the Swedes and Norwegians use (u) for (u), "which in Norwegian had the additional peculiarity of being unilaterally rounded, at least in some dialects," and would therefore be ( $\mathrm{U}^{\S}$ ) "In Swedish this ( $o_{u}$ ) has been mored up nearly into the place of the (u), but in Norwegian it is formed as in Danish. The consequence is that the Norwegians are quite unable to pronounce the ( n ) in foreign languages." (ibid.) In some Yorkshire people I have obserred a tendency to pronounce (as) in the direction of ( 0 ), so that the effect hovered betircen ( 0 ) and ( 0 ), and for that reason might be mritten ( $0^{\circ}$ ). Southerners accuse them of saying (ool kooz), for (aal kasz), all curese. It is possible that this sound is properly $\left(A_{0}\right)$. It deserves investigation, if only from the Scandinavian relations of Yorkshire.

We may note generally that (AA) is an extremely difticult vorrel for forcigners, and it is seldom reached. Even Scotchmen are apt to confuse it with (a). But conversely Englishmen confuse even foreign (a) with (A). The German (a) is so confidently considered as (AA), that (AA) is known among Euglish orthocpists as the German A!

## 10. ( A, э)-continued.

Again the broad ( 00 ) of our dialects is by dialectal writers almost always written $a u$, meauing (AA); and the Italian o aperto, in syllables where it is taken as long, is called (aA), as (nAA, bwas'no) for (no, buó'nuh), no, buono. Italians themselves say (aa) rather than (oo) for English (as). Both vowels (AA, o), with the true lip rounding, are, as already obserred, almost peculiarly English. I have reason to doubt whether (AA) is really heard in India, or Persia, or Austria, which are the only places, beside England, where, so far as I know, it may be at home.

Hence also the diphthong ( $A^{\prime} i, 0^{\prime} i$ ) is rare out of England. For its English origin from (úi, ói) see (131, a. 270 , a. 1101, c). The Danish rög is written (ios) by Mr. Sweet (ibid. p. 107), but this means ( $\mathrm{TO}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{J}$ ). This, however, to my ears, is the nearest foreign diphthong to our ( ${ }^{\prime} i$ ). The German eu I am accustomed to call (o'i) myself, and perhaps in the North of Germany it fully reaches that sound. I think, however, that (ói) would be a more correct representation of the North German sound. For the Middle German I hear (aí, áy). Rapp does not properly distinguish ( 0,0 ), and in Italian does not distinguish close and open $o$. Hence although he makes the English short o to be his $\dot{o}$, I sball transcribe it ( 0 ), as I believe he pronounces it. He says: (Phys. d. Spr. 4, 19): "Theory has been greatly troubled with German eu. Feeling the inconvenience of confusing eu with $e i$ (ai) in Middle Germany, theoreticians thought that with ai, aue, they could associate an analogous aü (áy), which howerer does not readily unite with them, even when really pronounced, as indced is commonly the case, ouly as aé, ao, aü, (á $e$, áo, ác). On the other hand, the Northern, Dutch, and low German ( $\partial \mathrm{i}, \partial^{\prime} \epsilon$ ) presented itself, as at least intentionally different from ai (ái), and as (3) was no German sound [Rapp identifies it with French de me que], it was adranced to òi òé (ói úe), so that there resulted a diphthongal triad ai au oi ( (ái áu ói), which is completely identical with the English and also the old Latin ae, au, oe, and of which we can at least say that they are the three most convenient diphthongs for the organs of speech. Later on, the want of the intermediate sound in $\dot{o} i$

## 10. (A, э)-continued.

(6i) was felt, and to avoid this objection, a rather difficult but not illsounding diphthong $\grave{o} \ddot{i}$ (óy) was theoretically acknowledged, and although an extremely artificial product, pretty well satisfied all requirements. Those prorinces that possess (o'i o'u) are the real causes of establishing (a'y) as $\dot{o} \ddot{i}$ (óy), whereas those that acknowledge $a$-diphthongs only will always incline to the low Saxon oi (ói). The diphthongs are always affected by a following nasal, so that when radical ein aun eun are not called (á in á،un áin), for which last (óin) would be preferable, they come out as (áen, áon, óen), and any theory will find it difficult to produce (nóyn fróynd) with sensible (y) without an appearance of affectation. . . German theoreticians who are solearned inscripture (Sehriftgelehrt) that they insist on haring $a$ heard in au, and $e$ in $e i$ (not an $e$ in $e u$ also, or, for the sake of $a, e, o$, an o perhaps?), are, thank heaven! so rare, that we need not speak of them." Brücke (Ueber cine nene Methode der phonetischen Transscription, Wien, 1863, p. 53), transcribes büume, neues, vertröumtem by characters equivalent to (báy•me ${ }^{\text {a }}$
 dicates an "imperfectly formed $e$," that is, he, a low Saxon, adopts the theoretical (áy). As Englishmen's viervs of the identity of German eu with their own oy are generally very ill based, I thought it better to give the riews of German phoneticians on the snbject. But the arguments of Rapp scem to leave out of consideration the organic development of language without any reference to writing, so that he lays himself open to the very "learning in scripture" which he ridicules.
( $t$ ). This is a medial $(>t<)$, see No. 8 ( t ).
( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{sh}$ ). For the distinction of ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) see No. 6 ( s ). This advanced (sh) may be distinctly heard in saying wutch with a very protracted hiss (watsh sh sh); and after a little practice it is possible to say (sh) without the erutch of ( t ). Mr. Swect sayshe is inclined to accept this analysis. Prof. Haldeman says that instead of advancing (sh) to (sh), he retracts ( t ) to ( t ? ), which comes to the same thing.

## 10. (sh, sh)-continued.

At any rate, the ordinary English ( $t$, sh) are not both heard in watch.

This (sh) is apparently the true Roman $c$ in dieci, cinque (.die'. shi, shiq kué), which Englishmen hear as (diee'shi, shiq $\cdot \mathrm{k} u \mathrm{c}$ ). This is, therefore, the Italian derivative from Latin ( $k$ ). How far the ( $t$ ) is developed, further observations are required to shew, but the following (translated) notes in F. I'alentini's Gründliche Lehre der Italicnisehen. Aussprache (Berlin, 1834), are worth quoting, as being written by a Roman who was thoroughly acquainted with German, in which sch, tsch, zsch, for (sh, tsh), are common. He says (ibid. p. 15, note): "The correet pronunciation of the Italian syllables ce, ci, cia, cio, after a vowel, as heard from all educated Romans and Tuscaus, cannot be completely represented by German signs; they should properly be heard from a teacher conversant with good pronunciation. The following examples will serve to shew that these syllables in this case are as distinct from their ordinary value as from scc, sci, scia, scio. In facce, faces, the $c$ sounds exactly like tsch; in fasce, swaddlings, the vowel is stopped, and the final sce thus becomes harder; in fuce, torches, and all similar cases, the vowel is lengthened, and ce consequently receives that peculiar softness already mentioned. All three sounds are beard in the following line of Tasso:

Gli ucciderò, faronne acerbi scempj, Ger. Lib. 1, 87, 3," 4th stanza from end.
He proceeds to say that the best writers have constantly written see for ce, thus arbucello arbuscello, bracia brascia, baci basci, cte., and that "in the Lombard dialcets ce, ci, after a vowel, fall into a very soft $s$ or $z$, as vesin, disi, sazerdott, for vicino, dici, sacerdote." The examples facce, fasce, face, are possibly meant to differ as (fa $\mathrm{t} \cdot \mathrm{t}$, she $)$ or (far shc), (faar she, faa , she).

The combination ( 1, , sh), or else (, sh), is dereloped where (sh) does not occur, as in Spauish, just as (, d, zh) or ( zh ) is found in Italian, where ( zh ), the buzz of (sh), is unknown, and (d, zh) has been common for centuries in English, where (zh) in vision (vi $\boldsymbol{z}$ hen) is quite a recent development. In English (t,sh), which I have hitherto written and shall generally write (tsh), was developed from ags. $(k)$, see $(204, d)$, where the
10. (sh, sh)-continued.
relation of ( $\mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{tj}$ ) to ( tsh ) will require revision, if ( $s \mathrm{sh}$ ) and not ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) is the original derivative from ( $k$ ). In quite recent English ( t , sh ) has been dereloped from (ti) before ( $\dot{u}$ ), as in the termination -ture, in nature (nce th shx).

To the absence of an independent (sh) may perhaps be attributed the persistence with which ( t , sh) initial, being only ( $t<, s h<$ ), is considered a simple letter, and $c h$ or $t c h$ final in such, much, crutch, whicb is ( $>\mathrm{t}<$, sh), has been taken to be the result of prefixing ( $t$ ) to the former simple sound. To the same cause I attribute the dispute as to the final sounds in inch, laich, launch, diench, which some analyze as (sh), and others as (tsh). Now the position of the tongue for ( n ) being the same as that for ( t ), the full analysis may be ( $i=n-n h-$ sh) or ( $i-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{nh}-\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{sh}$ ), or simply ( $i-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{sh}$ ) or ( $i-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{sh}$ ). But in the plural inches, I myself use a distinct ( t ), thus, ( $i \cdot n, \mathrm{t}$, shers ), and to my ear $(i \cdot n)$, shez) is uuusual. Mr. Bell uses (-mhtsh-).

The sound ( $t$,sh), as I hear it, is the Hungarian cs, the Polish ca, and 24th Russian letter. As I pronounce Polish szcz, the 26th Russian letter, I seem to prolong (sh) or (sh), and for an instant touch the palate with the tip of the tongue in the middle of the hiss, checking it momentarily and producing two hiss-glides, thus $(\mathrm{sh}>\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{sh})$, or (sh,, sh $)$, for the $t$ is probably (,$t$ ). The Germans write the sound schtsch. That $c h$ in English cheese has a prefixed ( $t$ ), may be felt rery distinctly by pronouncing ( $t$ shi, $t$ she, $t$ sha, $t$ sha, t , sho, t , shu) with great rapidity, when the beat of the tongue agaiust the palate will be felt as markedly as in rapid ( $\mathrm{ti}, \mathrm{te}, \mathrm{ta}, \mathrm{ta}, \mathrm{to}, \mathrm{tu}$ ). It is convenient also to practise (shi, she, sha, sha, sho, shu), and (.shi, shc, sha, sha, sho, shu).

Notwithstanding the confidence I feel in the diphthongal nature of $c h$ in checse as $=(\mathrm{t}$,sh $)$, yet strong opinions of a different nature are entertained. Prince L. L. Bonaparte can hear no difference between English ch in chacse and Italian ci, and this he considers to be the simple (sh), a continuant, which he can prolong indefinitely, and which, when so prolonged, suggests a ( t ) throughout. On the other hand Mr. Goodwin (1093, $d^{\prime}$ ), no mean observer, considers $c h$ in chest and $j$ iu jest to be

## 10. (sh, sh)-continued.

 explodents, which I will mark by the new characters (ki, gy), the latter writtcu as an undotted $j$ crossed; see $(1094, c)$. These are the real explodents corresponding to ( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{J}$ ), or Mr. Bell's $2 e, 2 l$, on p. 15 , which he too hastily confused with my ( $\mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{dj}$ ). Observe that in ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) the tip, and in $(k, g)$ the back, of the tongue touches the palate; then for ( $\mathrm{t} j, \mathrm{dj}$ ), without removing the tip, bring the middle of the tongue against the palate, and for ( $k j, g j$ ), without removing the back, also bring the middle of the tongue against the palate. Hence for ( $\mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{dj}$ ) the front two-thirds, and for (kj, gj) the back two-thirds, of the tongue touch the palate. But for (kJ, gf) only the middle third of the tongue touches the palate, thus producing a real explodent, which, as Mr. Nicol pointed out to me, is the sound indicated by Mr. Bell's Visible Speech symbol. To succeed in pronouncing them at first, keep the tip of the tongue down by burying it below the lower gums; and to prevent the back of the tongue from rising to the ( $k$ ) position, think of ( $t$ ), which of comse cannot be pronounced when the tip of the tongue is kept down. Make the effect of (kja) perfectly sharp, by beginning with a closed glotiis ( $1097, b$ ), and come quietly ou to the vowel without any escape of unvocalised breath. A little practice is necessary to aroid ( $k j, g j$ ) on the one hand, and ( $t_{1}$ sh, $d_{, ~ z h}$ ) on the other, but the sound has a philological ralue which makes it worth while nuderstanding. These (kJ, gj) are Mr, Goodwin's $c, j$, in the following remarks (ibid. p. 9) :" $\mathrm{C}(e h$ in $c h i n)$ is manifestly a simple elementary consonant, and a lene. It is produced by placing a certain portion of the tongue near the tip, but not the tip itself, against a certain part of the palate, and, after pressure, suddenly withdrawing it with a violent emissiou of breath. It has no $t$-sound in its composition, for neither the tip of the tongue nor the teeth are used in its production. Neither does it end in an sh-sound, for, in that case, it could be prolonged ad libitum, which the true $e$ (ch English) cannot be. Moreover, it does not begin with any one sound, and end with another, but is the same simple sound throughout its whole extent. It may be shewn by a similar experi-

## 10. (sh, sh)-continued.

ment, and proof, that $j$ is a simple elementary somud. It bears the same relation to $c(\mathrm{~kJ})$ that $g$ docs to $k$, or any other lene sonant to its corresponding lene surd." That the true $c h$ camnot be prolonged ad libitrom, no other writer, so far as I am aware, has asserted, except in the sense that its prolongation, like that of all diphthongs, differs from its commencement. In connection with these remarks of Mr. Goodwin, it seems best to cite what he says about (sh, zh), to which I must prefix his curious remark on aspirates, a subject which will have to be especially considered in No. 14, (wh). He says (ibid. p. 8) :
"Each of the aspirates might have been represented by a single character; but, as $\hbar$ represents a simple breathing or aspiration, and as all the aspirates are similarly combined with such a breathing, and those of them which are used in English are generally so represented, we have chosen to represent them all as combined with $h$. We do not mean by this to intimate that the somud of $h$ is added to the respective lenes-for in that case the aspirates would not be simple sounds-but that it is combined with them throughout their whole extent. They are simple, therefore, under our definition; and if in any sense compound, they are so by a sort of chemical composition, in distinction from a mechanical aggregate or mixture. $\pi / h$, for example, is not equal to $k+h$, but to $k \times h$. This we consider a true aspiration; while the sound of $\%$, added after a consonant, no more renders that consonant a true aspirate, than it does the following consonant or vowel. We do not doubt there are such aspirates ('so called') in other languages, as in the Sanscrit, for example; but we here speak of the strict propriety of the term."
[p. 9]. "Sh is not the aspirate of $s$, that is, it is not related to $s$ as $t h$ to $t, p h$ to $p$, etc., as any one may ascertain by a simple experiment of prommeiation. $S$ is more dental than palatal, sh is not dental at all. But $s h$ is related to $c$ (kJ) precisely as any other aspirate to its lene ; that is, if you place the organs as if to produce $c\left(\mathrm{kf}^{\prime}\right)$, but instead of bringiug them into perfect contact, retain a slight passage between for the constant egress of the breath, modifying it, as it goes out, by this specific ap-
10. (sh, sh)-continued.
proximation of the organs to a state of contact, you will have a perfect sh. $Z h$ is plainly related to $j$, as $s h$ to $c\left(\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{j})}\right) . "$ [This is incorrect, the result is (Jh).] "The $s$ and $z$, as sibilants, are pecular, but in respect of the organs employed in their articulation, they furnish a transition between the palatal $c$ (ky), etc., and the dentals $t$, etc.; and in respect to the mode of their articulation, they are to be reckoned among the aspitates rather than the lenes. Their lenes would be a certain unpronounceable medium between $c(\mathrm{ky})$ and $t$ and between $j$ ( $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{j}}$ ) and $d$ respectively."

The systematic terms, lenes et aspiratae, should be discarded, as they tend to produce great confusion, and the precise mode of generating each individual sound should be studied, as we study individuals in natural history, before we attempt to classify them, except prorisionally. The grammarians' provisional and extremely imperfect classification of lenes et aspiratae has been long antiquated.

When Mr. Gupta risited me (1096, a), I was astonished to find that his pronunciation of च ज was not the ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}$ d,zh) usually laid down in books as the modern pronunciation, nor the ( kj gj ) usually theoretically supposed to be the aneient sounds, but exactly and umistakably ( kg gf ) as just described. This must be also the real ancient sound, and it solves every diffieulty. In Mr. Gupta's pronunciation (kj) was as pure and unnixed with any hiss as an English ( $k$ ). The post-aspirated forms will be considered in No. 14, (wh). Corresponding to these ( $\mathrm{kJ} \mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{f}}$ ) there must be of course a nasal (q+), which howerer only occurs immediately before them, and is hence a generated sound, just as (q) itself in Sanscrit; but it is certainly not (nj) as usually assumed, for the point of the tongue does not touch the palate; nor ( qj ), corresponding to ( $\mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{gj}$ ), for the back of the tongue never reaches the ( $k$ )-position. The Sanscrit explodents now become perfectly intelligible. क the usual ( k ) with the back of the tongue only, and neither the middle nor the tip, in contact with the palate. च the present ( $\mathrm{kf}_{\mathrm{f}}$ ), with the middle of the tongue only, and neither the baek nor the tip, in contact with the palate. ट with the tip of the tongue only, and neither the

## 10. (sh, sh)-continued.

back nor middle, in contact with the palate, and not the teeth, written ( $\mathbf{T}$ ), for one of the forms ( $, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}$ ), that is either retracted or coronal, not gingival nor dental, nor citra-dental ( $t \dagger$ ). त with the tip of the tongue only against the teeth only, not against the palate. The sides of the tongue in all cases have to complete the closure. The series may then be completed thus:
(к) back of retracted tongue against extreme back of palate.
(k) back of tongue against palate.
(kj) back and middle of tongue against it.
(ky) middle of tongue against it.
( tj ) middle and tip of tongue against it.
(, tr r ) tip of tongue against palate in varions places from furthest back to crown or base of gums.
(t) tip of tongue against upper teeth.
(..t) tip of tongue against both upper and lower teeth, but not protruded.
( $\mathrm{t} \dagger$ ) tip of tongue protruded between upper and lower teeth.
(p) lower lip against upper teeth.
(p) lower lip against upper lip.

Now each of these can give rise to a hiss by a slight relasation of the contact. Hence we get a theoretical (kh) from ( k ) ; the well-known (kh) from (k), the German $c h$ in ach; the equally well-known (kjh) from (kj), the German ch in ich; the English $(\mathrm{sh})=(\mathrm{kgh})$ from $\left(\mathrm{kJf}^{\prime}\right)$, of which presently; the Euglish (sh) is the nearest if not the exact hiss of the English ( t ), as will be noticed presently, (th) the hiss of dental (. t ). National habits will here interfere. The Sanscrit has only a generated (kh), as will be shewn in No. 14, (wh), and hence it does not appear in writing. The (kgh) or ( Jh ) however existed distinctly and had a sign श. Now if modern Germans, as we shall sce in No. 16, (J), actually confuse (kjh, sh), we cannot suppose that their ancestors, the old emigrants from the Aryan land, did better, and from (kjh) the step to $(k)$ on the one hand and (sh) on the other is easy. How easily (sh) comes from (sh) we know in English, and Mr. Goodwiu has himself exemplified it by making (kgh) $=(\mathrm{sh})$ instead of ( sh ), just as in India ( Jh ) has sunk absolutely into (sh). Lepsius makes the sound of श् theoretically = (shj), (Standard Alphabet, p. 71), which he identifies with Polish $s$, a sound I hear as (sj). But Mr. Gupta hears no

## 10. (sh, sh)-continucd.

difference in present usage between 2 and $\overline{\text {, both are equally (sh). But both }}$ occur as ungenerated distinct forms in Sanserit, where they are unmistakably referred to च ट. There is probably no doubt therefore that श was, and still represeuts, (Jh). Now we have already shewn on comparing ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) in ( $1104, c$ ) that the latter is retracted, as compared with the former. And in the same way ( T ) is retracted as regards ( t ). In languages having no (th), - as in German for example,-(s) or (s), for the two cases are not distinguished, is taken to be, and actually results as, the hiss of (. $t$ ). It is thus that high German $z=(. \mathrm{t}$ s s ) has probably actually resulted from (. $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ). In the same way स was in Sanscrit referred to त. As a matter of course therefore $\mathbf{\nabla}$ (sh) or (sh) was referred to ट (т). In modern Bengalce, as we have seen ( $1100^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ ), all three sounds पा ष स are confused as $(\mathrm{sh})$. That पू य $=(\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{J})$ were not exhibited together as surd and sonant, may be due to the fact that there were no ( $\mathrm{zh}, \mathrm{z}$ ) as sonants to ष स. The Sanserit series of speech sounds, like those of all other nations, was but fragmentary.

Considerable objection has been taken to Mr. Melville Bell's classification of ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ), by which, in the arrangement on p. $15,2 b$ and $3 b$, the (s) is apparently allied to ( J ), and the (sh) to ( t ). So strongly have speakers felt the relation of (s) to ( t ), and of (sh) to ( Jh ), that, as I have been informed (by Miss Hull, of 102 . Warwick Gardens, Kensington, who successfully teaches deaf and dumb girls to speak and read from the lips, and, employing for that purpose Mr. Bell's Visible Speech symbois, went in 1873 to Boston, in America, to study Mr. Grahan Bell's method of using it in teaching at the deaf and dumb institutions there), Mr. G. Bell has found it best to transpose these symbols, giving to the symbol $2 b$ the meaning (sh), aud to the symbol $3 b$ the meaning (s). But Mr. Melville Bell's symbols are both 'mixed,' and imply merely that the ( J ) character in the position of the tongue predominates in (s) by the elevation of the middle of the tongue, and the ( t ) character of the same in (sh), by the depression of the middle of the tongue. This is clearly shewn by
10. (sh, sh)-continued.
his diagrams (Visible Speech, p. 53) and his description (ibid. p 52 ), riz.: "6. (s) Front-Mixed. The Front [middle] and Point [tip] of the Tongue both raised, so as to bring the convex surface of the tongue close to the front [crown] of the palatal arch, and the point of the tongue. at the same time, elose to the upper gum. -7. (sh) PointMixed. The Point [tip] and the Front [middle] of the Tongue both raisedthe latter in a less degree than for symbol 6. (s)-bringing the front [middle] surface of the tongue near to the rim [?] of the palatal arch." The characters both imply ( $\mathrm{sh} \mathrm{Fr}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{h}$ ), but for ( s ) the greater proximity of the middle of the tongue to the ( J )-position determined both its position and its sign. The recent variation, by Mr. Graham Bell, in the application of these symbols, shews how dithicult it is to select any form of symbolism depending on elassification. Different points strike different minds as best adapted for characteristics. As in botany and zoology genera and families are constantly being remodelled, we cannot be surprised at the difficulties and disagreements which have notoriously arisen in a matter so little understood and requiring so much training (almost securing bias) to observe and appreciate, as speech-soumls. Still greater exception would probably be taken to Mr. Bell's classing (th) linder (sh), and (th), which he identifies wilh Welsh II (lhh), under ( r h ), because we naturally identify (th) with the teeth, and overlook the position of the middle of the tongue. The columns 2 and 3, in Mr. Bell's table, p. 14, should, accor ing to these recent changes in palaeotype, be symbolised as follows, in order, from line $a$ to line $m$;
2. voiceless Jh s ly h th $\mathrm{k}_{\ddagger} \mathrm{qgh}^{\mathrm{l}}$ voiced $J \quad z$ if dhe gi If
3. voiceless $\mathrm{r}_{0} \mathrm{~h}$ sh th th t wh voiced $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{zh} 1 \mathrm{dh} d \mathrm{n}$ If ( $\mathrm{th}, d \mathrm{~h}$ ) really represent the Welsh $\|$ and its Manx voiced form, they are identical with the symbols ( (hh /hh), see $(756, c, d)$. where the voiculess form (lhh) is incorrectly stated to occur in Manx.
(wat,sh). The voice, set on in (w), continues with a glide on to (0), and then with a sharp and very semsible glide on to (t), where it is cut off or

## 10. (wot, sh)-continued.

stopped, and the glottis elosed; the glottis is, however, immediately opened wide for mocalised breath, and a hissglide is formed on to (sh), through which the hiss may be continned indefimtely, and as a rule the position for (sh) is held as long as the breath is andible, so that it does not glide off into anything else. This may be written ( $\mathrm{w}-\mathrm{o}>\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{sh}$ ). But in checse we have ( $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{sh}<\mathrm{ii}>\mathrm{z}$-s), without the glide on to ( $t$ ), and hence the ( $t$ ) is less felt than in the other case.
11. SAW, (SAA).
(s). For (s) see No. 6, (s).
(A). For ( 11 ) sec No. 10, ( 1,0$)$. We have here only the continued sound. Dr. Rush says (op. cit. p. 61), " $A$-we has for its radical, the peculiar sound of ' $a$ ' in awe; and for its vamish, a short and obscure sound of the monothong (sic) e-rr." That is, he would pronounce saw (sai ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{SAA}{ }^{\prime}$ ), which would give the effeet of adding an $r$. It is quite true that Londoners have a difficulty in distinguishing saw sore, law lore, maw more, generally saying only (saA', laA', maA') for (saA soo', laa $10 o^{\prime}$, mas moo'), and that the principal difference to them is that the first words nay not, and the last words must, have an epenthetical ( $r$ ) before a rowel. It is therefore best to avoid this "ranish," and say (sAA) without relaxing the position for (AA). But really, as will hereafter appear, (sAA', $e e^{\prime} \mathrm{j}$,, $0^{\prime}(w)$ are phenomena of precisely the same kind, ( $\$ 2$, No. 6, ir.) We also find (mmaa', pepaa') in the same way. The ouly objection is to the interposition of a trilled $r$, as saw-r-ing (sas'riq). But the Basques interpose a "cuphonie" $r$ in the same way, and if we conld ouly persuade grammarians to call the Cockner interposition of ( $x$ ) "cuphonic" also, the custom, which is a living reality, however unsavonry now, would be at once disiufected.
(sui). The glide from (s) to (AA) is of the same nature as in (silss), No. 6.
12. FEATHERS, Bell's (fe dhexz), my (fe•dh.izs).
(f). See No. 4, (f).
( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{e}$ ). Sce No. 7, (e, E).
(dh). This is the buzz of (th), see No. 3, (th). There is no initial (d), as Germans imagine, in English (dhen), which wonld require the un-English dental (ddhen). The final (-ddlı) does not oceur, but we have (-dhd) in breathed, batheed, swathed, tithed = (briilhd, beedhd, sweedhd, ta'idhd), in pronouncing which the retraction of the tongue from (dh) to (d) may be distinctly felt. And (d dh) constantly concur in successive words, as and the, see (1098, a).
( $\mathrm{p} . \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{x}$ ). On ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{x}$ ) see No. 3, (r), and No. 4, (.1). Mr. M. Bell has peculiar theorics about unaccented vowels, which will be better discussed in some special examples, given hereafter. The (b) only oceurs in English in unaccented syllables, and it mar be questioned whether the real sound in these syllables is not $(\partial)$. It is the same, or nearly so (for the exact shades of such obscurities are difficult to seize), as the obscmre final $-e$ in German and Dutch. When French e muet is pronounced, I seem to hear (a) rather than (a) or ( $\propto$ ), and there is a schism on this point among the French themselves. See also $(548, b)$.
(zs). See No. 5, (fair), on this after-sound of (s), which is generally very clearly dereloped, especially in singing psalms, where it becomes disagreeably prominent. This final (s) should be very lightly touched, as a mere relief from the unpleasant buzz ( z ).
(fe•dh.zzs). The word begins with an unvocalised hiss which is contimned as long as the ( $f$ ) pusition is held, so that the rocal chords must not be brought tugether till that position is released. The glide on to (e) may take place through the gradual closure of the glottis, and hence may be partly voiceless, but the voice is now contimued, without break, on to (z). There is an interruption to its smoothness by the buzzing of (dh), but, muless there is a trill superadded to ( I ),-which is admissible, but umsual, -the voice isheard as an olsenre rowel (v) or (0) through (x). The result is ( $\mathrm{f}<\mathrm{e}>\mathrm{dh}<\mathrm{r}>\mathrm{z}$-s).

## 12. (fe'dh.zzs)-continued.

The syllable divides somewhere during (dh). 'The vowel (e) being short, the whole glide from (e) to (dh), and the whole continuance of the buzz till the glide from (dh), would generally be reekoned to belong to the first syllable. This is merely fanciful. The interruption to vocality by the buzz makes two groups ( $\mathrm{f}<\mathrm{e}>$ ) and ( $<\mathrm{I}>z-\mathrm{s}$ ), between which there is an extra-syllabic buzz of sensible duration, and if it were exaggerated in length, we should have the effect of three groups. Practically. two groups only being felt, the length of (dh) is divided at pleasure between them, and is, I believe actually at times differently divided by means of a relasation of force or slur - , to be described in No. 14, (wh), according to the momentary feeling of the speaker.

> 13. TONGS, Bell's (toqz), my (toqzs).
(t). See No. 2, (t).
(0). Sce No. 10 , $(A, 0)$.
(q). This bears the same relation to ( n ), as (g) to (d). It is simply (g) with a complete nasal resonance, and thus differs from ( g ) , with incomplete resonance, although in both the uvula is free from the pharynx, but whether to an equal extent has not beco determined. The (q) is common in German, Italian, and modern Greek, and was clearly present in Latin and ancient Greek, though it has never received a distinct symbol iu these lanquages, as it bas in Sanscrit. But in these languages it is merely a euphonic alteration of ( n ) generated by a following ( $k$ ) or (g). It is quite unknown in French, where it seems to Englishmen to have been transformed into a French nasality of the vowel, (a.) bearing to (a.) about the same relation as (aq) to (ag, ). But the real differences which distinguish French P'ortuguese, dialectal German, American English Gaelic, Hindu, and perhaps other undescribed nasalities, have not yet been defermined, so that all analysis is procisional. Mr. Gupta (1096, a) pronounced the San-crit "necessary anusvâra" as (q) and not as a mark of nasalixation (A). The nasal passages are so complicated and full of tremulous

## 13. (q)-continued.

membranes, and of secretions, that the resouance is necessarily very complicated. It is safest for Kaglishmen who cannot pronounce the French nasals to use (q) for ( $\Lambda$ ). On ( $67, c$ ) I accidentally misstated Mr. Bell's analysis, which is properly an, on, un, vin = (oh.1, ohi, oג, vea). Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte's is (a.s, o $o_{1}$, tha, e $e_{1}$ ). M. E'douard Piris seems to analyze (as, 0., œas, es) in the lutroduction to his "St. Matthieu en l'icard Amiénois" (London, 1863, trauslated for Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte). In fact it is not possible to analyse these sounds perfectly, because the mere detachment of the urula from the back of the pharynx alters the shape of the resonance chamber for the oral vowel, and the addition of nasality effectually disguises its quality. By very carefully performed and recoried experiments with the phonautugraph and König's manometric flames (see Poggeudorif's Anualen, vol. 146) on vowels sung at the same pitch, with and without different uasalisations, it may be possible to discover the alteration of the quality produced by nasalisation, but even this is problematical, and, so far as I know, no experiments have hitherto been made in this direction. At present our connection of oral to nasal vowels is purely a matter of aural appreciation, and will probably differ for the same speaker from observer to observer. The form (a.1) would mean, that, with the exception of the uvula, the orgaus are disposed as for (a), and that the uvula is so widely detached from the pharynx as to allow a perfectly free passinge of vocalised breath through the nose as well as through the mouth. The form (a) gives the same position, with the exception of the uvul:, which is, I think, only slightly detached from the pharynx, so that the nasal passage is not so free as the oral, and hence the oral vowel is so distinctly reeognized that probably Frenchmen would not recognize ( $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{c}}$ ) as intended for (a, ). Both (a. and (as) are ori-naval vowels, but the name is best applied to the second, while the first may be called a nasalisel oral vowel. lictween (a), with no uasality, and (as). with perfeet ori-nasality, there are many degrees; but, as before said, we have not yet succeeded in analysiug them, although the difficrent degrees in which the uasal

## 13. (q)-continued.

passage is opened by the uvula is of course one important element, producing an effect comparable to that of the different 'roundings' of the vowels by the lips, sce No. 10 (A, o). But in (aq) we have first a purely oral vowel, followed by a glide ( $a>q$ ), which may pass through some form of nasality, but can never reach either (a) or (as), because the oral passage is gradually obstructed more and more by the back of the tongue, till finally, all passage through the mouth being cut off by the ( k ) contact of the back of the tongue and soft palate, the voice issues in (q) entirely through the nosc. These distinctions, pure oral (a), nasalised oral (a), ori-nasal (as), pure oral (a) + a glide which is partly nasal, and imperfectly oral + pure nasal ( $q$ ). should be carefully borne in mind. It will then be seen that the English (oq, ooq, aq, veq) and the German (aq, oq. œq, bheq) are very imperfect approximations to the French an, on, un, vin, but are intelligible simply because (q) not existing in French, there are no other sounds which they could represent. It is remarkable that in received English no rowtel occurs long before ( $q$ ), so that even (ooq) is rather difficult to our organs. In America, however, (oq) is often (oəq) or (Aaq), as (looq, sooq) or (lanq, sasq). And in Icelandic the rowel before $(q)$ is always intentionally long ( $546, b, d^{\prime}$ ):

Mr. Goodwin is peculiar in his analysis of (q), his ng. He says (ibid. p. 10), " $N g$ represcuts a simple, elementary, and a liquid sound, combining a nasal and a palatal character, or intermediate between the two, being produced in the endeavour to pronounce an $n$, by pressing the middle of the tonguc against the palate. Nhg (or $n g h$ ), the so-called French masal, is related to $n g$ as any other aspirate to its lene; that is, it is acrmpanied with an emission of breath, while the organs are in near approximation to the specific contact which characterizes $n g$." The deseription of (A) is of crurse entirely ineorreet. The deecription of (q), however, dees not answer to the English (q), but to the probable Sans. ( $q_{f}$ ), which Englishmen confuse with (nj). The Freuch, having no (q), confuse it with their (uwn (inj). I lave aloo known $\operatorname{Fr}(\mathrm{nj})$ pronounced (qj) in t ngland. There is therefore no certainty respecting ( $q, q \jmath, q j, ~ n j)$ in
13. (q)-continued.
accounts of foreign sounds. The confusion is quite similar to that of (w, bh, v). In English (q), which has generally been generated by the action of a letter of the $k$-series on a pre. ceding $n$, never occurs initially, so that English people find it difficult to make it glide on to a following rowel, as (qaa, qii, quu), which are found in some African and other languages. Hence when final, it is simply prolonged, as ( 1 oq ), the strength of the voice dying off, and it seldom becomes roiceless (loqqh), because there is no inconvenience in prolonging the nasality. But sometimes the nasality is dropped, and then simple ( g ) results, as (loqg), which is treated as a usual final sonant, and may become (logg'). This cannot be reckoned as a rcceived form, although it may be bistorical. On the other hand, the voice is occasionally dropped with the nasality, and the result is (loqk‘), which is reckoned vulgar, as in (thiqk. $)$ for (thiq), though commou in German (192, d). We have, however, a final (-iq), in the participles, which certainly does not arise from a previous (k) form. The confusion of the ( $-q$, -nd) participial forms is very old; it may possibly have arisen from confusing the participle and verbal noun or gerund, for many of our dialects ignore this ( -q ) altogether, and use ( -n ) as a termination for both, " not pronouncing the $g$," as glessarists assume, although Southern Scotch dialects distinguish them by vowels. ( - on) participle. ( - in) for gerund (Murray, ibid. p. 211). Similarly (nə thin, na then, no fin, n $\downarrow$ fun) are not uncommon vilgarisms for nothing (nathiq). Yankee and Irish English prefer the participle in -in. In the Forth and Bargy extinct English, $n g$ and $n$ seem to have been occasionally confused.

When $(\mathrm{q})$ is medial, the difficulty is overcome in two ways. First, the glide of ( $q$ ) on to the vowel, is altogether omitted, by begiuning the vowel with a glottid (, ;), or by slurring or relaxing the force of the voice on (q), so that the glide becomes inaudible. The clear (,) or eatch (;) are, I lhink, uncommon either in English or German under such circumstances, but the relaxation or slur ( - ) is, I think, the rule Thus singer, louging, are (siq-I lorq-iq),
 loq;iq). Secondly, the nasality is

## 13. (q)-continued.

ultimately omitted, and the resulting (g) glides easily on to the vowel, as in finger, longer (f $i \cdot \mathrm{qg.l}$, lo $\cdot \mathrm{qg}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ), where (q) passes into (g) with the same ease as (z) into (s) in (Hizs).

When (q) is medial, and a hiss, not a buzz, follows, if we attempt to make the glide on to the hiss, some speakers naturally drop the nasality and the voice, developing ( $k$ ), which glides on easily, as iu strength, length (streqkth, leqkth). This is not necessary. Although (qth) could no more make an initial combination than (uth), there could be a non-nasal glide from (q) to (th), which resembles the glide from $(g)$ or from (u) to (th), thus ( $q^{\prime}>$ th). Or else the (q) may end suddenly, and there may be a hiss-glide on to (th), thus $\left(q^{*}>t h\right)$. I think that this last is more frequently said. But the transition from the guttural $(q)$ to the dental (th) being violent, many speakers, especially of the older class, and Irishmen, bridge over the difficulty by changing (q) into ( n ), thus (strenth, lenth). A third hypothesis is possible. The voiceless breath may be introduced during the $(\mathrm{q})$, or in place of the $(\mathrm{q})$, thus (streq-qh-th) or (streqhth). I have not myself observed either. Mr. Bell probably adrocates the last, for he writes (maghki). This belongs to a theory considered in No. 15. I think (streqth, e.qshas, maqk, wiqkt) represent my own pronunciation of strength. anxious, monk, winked. When a voiced consourant follows, there seems no tendency to introduce (g), thus tomgs, winged are (toqzs, wiqd), not (toqgzs, wiqgd), which would be difficult to English organs. An attempt to pronounce them would probably result in (toqg'zs, wiqg'd').
(zs). See No. 12, (fe•dh.tzs).
(toqzs). The glide from ( $t$ ) to (0) may be gathered from No. 2, (tuu). The voice is regularly continued through $(q)$ to $(z)$, when it falls off to ( s ), thus ( $\mathrm{t}<0>\mathrm{q}-\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}$ ).
14. WHIP, (whip), variants (whwip, wip).
(wh). See Gill's recognition of (wh), on ( $185, b$ ), the observations ou ags. $h l, h r, h u, h w$, on ( $513, a b$ ), and

## 14. (wh)-continued.

Icelandic ( $543, d$ ), and on $h$ in general (221, d). So much controversy exists upon the points thus raised that it is worth while recurring to them. My ( H ) was identified with Mr. Bell's symbol, p. 15, col. 5, line $f$, with some hesitation, by Mr. Bell himself. But my own impression is that Mr. Bell has no sign precisely corresponding to what I mean by (н). In my original paper on Palaeotype (Philol. Trans. 1867, part 2, p. 16) I defined (H) as "the aspirate or jerk of the voice, not necessarily accompanied by a whisper, which could not be pronounced in certain post-aspirated consonants, as the Sanscrit भ, ध, घ (bн, dн, gн), and similar combinations in the Irish brogue. When the whisper is uttered, the effect should be represented strictly by ( $\mathrm{H}^{\circ}$ )." Now most persons who bave used my palaeotype confuse ( $\mathbf{H}, \mathbf{H}^{\circ}$ ), and I have certainly not been careful to distinguish them under ordinary circumstances. For the exact understanding, however, of such difficulties as have been raised respecting (wh), etc., it is necessary to enter into somewhat minute explanations. Referring to Mr. Bell's symbols, suprà p. 15 , by simple number and letter as $5 f$, "the symbol in column 5 , line $f$," the following are Mr. Bell's own explanations (• The Organic Relations of the Rudimental Symbols,' Visible Speech, pp. 46-49).
$9 a$. "When the glottis and the superglottal passage are perfectly open, the breath creates no sound in its emission. A moderate degree of expulsiveness to render the 'aspiration' audible is im. plied in $9 \alpha$. The symbol is pictorial of the expanded breath-chamnel in the throat." This I have written ( $\mathrm{H}^{*}$ ) on p. 15, the exact meaning of which will be explained presently, and ( $H^{\circ} h$ ) is the full sign.
$5 a$. "When the glottis is contracted to a narrow chink, the breath in passing sets the edge of the orifice-the "vocal ligaments'-in vibration, aud creates sonorous 'voice.' This vocalising condition of the glottis is pictured in the symbol." This I mark (') on p. 15. The description, however, is inaccurate. If there is any 'chink,' there is no 'voice,' but only 'whisper.' See No. 8, (ect). Distinguish between 'open glottis,' throngh which passes flutus or voiceless breath ('h), which may or may

## 14. (wh)-continued.

not be audible; 'chink glottis' when the edges of the chords are brought almost but not quite in contact, producing whisper ('h) ; and 'closed glottis,' the edges of the chords being absolutely in contact to be forced asunder by the breath, closing by their own clasticity, and thus producing that series of 'puffs' which result in 'roice,' ('h). Different from all these is the supra-glottal implosion ('h), No. 9, (b).
$9 b$. "When the glottis is open, and the super-glottal passage is contracted, the breath creates in the latter the nonsonorous rusthing or friction which is called ' whisper.' 'The relative expansion of the throat-channel for $9 a$ and $9 b$ is pietured in the symbols." I have marked thisas (') on p. 15 . Mysymbol for 'whisper' is (") or roicelessness + voice. Hence ('v) is used for whispered (f), and ( $i$ ) is whispered (i). 'lo indicate roicelessness, prefix (') to a whispered, or (") to a roiced letter. Thus (" $r$ ) $=$ ( f ), and ("i) is the mere flatus through the (i) position, scarcely distinguishable from (sh), while ("u) will be the mere flatus through the ( n ) position, searcely distinguishable from (wh), see No. 2 (uu), and No. 3 (ii). Now Mr. Bell goes on to say: "The organic effect of $9 b$ will be understood by whispering a 'voiced consonant' such as $r$. The result is clearly different from the sound of the non-roeal consonant of corresponding oral formation $f$. For the former (' $v$ ), the fricativeness of the breath is audible from the throat, through the oral configuration: for the latter, ( $f$ ), the breath-friction is audible only from the lip." I think that this account is imperfect, whisper being glottal and not pharyngal. There is a glottal wheeze ( $h$ ), which is produced by driving the voice sharply through the cartilaginous glottis, between the arytenoid cartilages, and not between the vocal churds, and Mr. Bell inelined to mark this as $9 b+10 b$, that is, as a prolongation of the piesent sound. At another time he wrote it $9 b$ $+9 g$, or with the mark of trill added to this sign. Now there is such a trilling effect possible by means of moisture, and sume observers do consider $(h)$ as an arytenoid glottal trill rather than a whecze. If roice accompanies, the result is either the Dauish glottal ( x ) or the Arabic ain (8), and

## 14. (wh)-continued.

the latter is perhaps only (. I ), that is a strong pronunciation of the former. I ans confirmed in this view by the fact of Mr. Sweet finding ( T ) very much like ( $o$ ), and by the nsual derivation of ofrom the Semitic ain.
$9 h$. "The symbol $9 h$ is a compound of $9 b$ and $5 a$, and denotes whisper and voice heard simultaneously;-a vocal murmur modified by breath-friction in the super-glottal passage." I marked this as (") on p. 15, but on my present definition of whisper this does not properly express the fact described. In whisper, however, there is so slight a vocalisation, arising from intermittent puffing, and so much apparent escape of unintermittent flatus, that the effect is felt as a mixture of voice and flatus, only the flatus has the upper hand, and the whole effect is generally weak. But in buzzing we have a powerful voice, with apparent intermingled flatus, which, however, is 1 think merely caused by inharmonic proper tones due to an obstructed resonant chamber, and is in ultimate analysis rather noise, that is, beating harmonies, than real flatus.
$9 c$. "The symbol $9 c$ pictures the combined edges of the gluttis, and denotes the 'catch' of the breath which is heard (with violence of percussion) in a cough. The linguistic effeet of $9 c$ is softer, but distinctly percussive, when an aspiration or a vocal sonnd follows the "catch." The form of the symbol $9 c$ gives a mrong impression of the position of the vocal chords. which are pressed tightly together, along the whole length of their opposed edges, (and not knieked in the middle only as the symbol seems to shew, ) so that it requires considerable effort to separate them by an expiration. The closure is, for a time, air tight, as in 'holding the breath.' Hence the breath escapes explosively, either as flatus or roicc. I write it (;).
$9 l$ and 9 m . "The symbols $9 l$ and $9 m$, by themselves, refer to the aperture of the mouth as afficted by the close (9l) or open ( 9 m ) position of the jaws. Following other symbols, $9 l$ denotes coufigurative compression, with consequent percussion on leaving the coufiguration, and $9 m$ denotes configurative openness or organic laxity. Thus
" $9 a+9$. An cxhaustive aspiration from upward pressure of the diaphragm; -a wheeze.

## 14. (wh)-continued.

" $9 a+9 m$. A gentle inaudible aspiration.
" $9 c+97$. Glottal closure with disteution of the larynx from pressure on the confined breath, and percussive emission on opening the passage;-a cough."

As will be seen by referring to (1106, c), I formerly marked $9 l$ on p. 15 as (.), considered merely as representing force, which is supposed to be continuous, and $9 m$ as (..), considered as representing weakness, also supposed continuous. These do not quite represent Mr. Bell's symbols. His $9 a+9 l$ is hardly (. $\mathrm{H}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ ), but very nearly so. His $9 a+9 m$ could not be (, $\mathrm{H}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ), because there is no jerk at all here, and (,,'h) is the nearest symbol for almost inaudible flatus. Again his $9 c+9 l$ could not be (.;), becanse this alone, without sign of flatus, whisper or voice, has no meaning, but (.;'h) is not unlike it. Using the signs ( ${ }_{1}$ ) as proposed on ( $1107, b$ ), we may, however, write $9 a+9 l=\left(b^{1}\right)$, though I think (. $\cdot \mathrm{h}{ }^{1}$ ) better for the effect intended, $9 a+9 m=\left({ }^{\prime} h_{1}\right)$ or (, ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{h}_{1}$ ), and $9 c+9 l$ $=\left(; h^{2}\right)$ or $\left(; \cdot{ }^{\prime} h^{1}\right)$.
" $10 f$ and $5 f$. Whisper and voice may be produced by air going inwards ( $10 f$ ) or by breath coming out ( $5 f$ )." Here I think Mr. Bell has made a slip. No 'voice' certainly, and no 'whisper" in the sense of (1126, b), can be produced by inspiration. I have written (i) for $10 f$, and Mr. Bell first gave $9 b$ and afterwards $\bar{f} f$ for my (н), but he must have been wrong in both cases. He proceeds to say: "All symbols except $10 f$ and $10 e$ imply emission." [Hence no special symbol for $5 f$ was required.] "The symbol $5 f$ is used to denote a transitional emission from the symbolized configuration in passing from one position to another." [This seems to mean 'glide' in my sense, denoted by $>$ or <]. "The effect is different from the throat acpiration $9 a$. Thus from the 'shut' position of the glottis $9 c$, we may either open sharply upon an utterance of voice $9 a+5 a$ " [my (;'h)], " or we may ease off the pressure of the 'catch' by interpolating a 'breath glide' $9 a+\overline{5} f+5 a$." Now this could not be (;rih), for this jerk would increase instead of "easing off" the pressure. In another place, quated presently, he calls this $5 f$ " ${ }^{\text {an }}$ aspirated hiatus." It would be of course possible

## 14. (wh)-continucd.

to interpose flatus, between the eatch (;) and the voice ('h), thus (;'h'h), and when a real vowel is used the series (;+"a+a), hereafter abridged to (;ha), may be easier than (;a) without any interposed flatus, for the explosion may force the vocal chords so far apart that flatus escapes before they can be reduced to the vocal position, and as they would recoil to it suddenly the effect ( $;+$ " $a+a$ ) would be different from ( $;+$ " $a+$ ' $a+a$ ) or (; ; ${ }^{a}$ ), which seems hardly possible. Still I own not to have caught the meaning of this symbol $5 f$ thoroughly, and I regret that I was led to identify it with my own (h). Mr. Graham Bell has used it at the end of words, when writing for deaf-mutes, to indicate what Mr. M. Bell calls the 'recoil' mentioned in the next citation, thus $8 f+3 e+5 f$ is used for my ( $\mathrm{xt}^{\text {b }}$ ). This would confirm my supposition that $5 f$ is not really different from ( $<$ 'h), since ( $\mathrm{et}^{\text {d }}$ ) is at full ( $\left(e>\mathrm{t}<{ }^{6} \mathrm{~h}\right.$ ). It remains therefore that Mr. M. Bell has no Visible Speech smybol for my (H), although I think his $9 l$, my (.), comes nearest to it , the difference being that (H) resembles impact or is momentary, and (.) resembles pressure or is continuous.
" $10 e$. The symbol $10 e$ signifies that the organic separation or recoil from any symbolized position - which is always implied in final elements when the 'stop' is not written-does not take place. Thus $9 c+10 e$ is an unfinished 'catch,' in forming which the impulse ceases with the closure of the glottis." But no effect would be heard it the glottis were kept closed. We must allow a single puff to escape $a_{b}$ least to shew the 'catch,' and then we must shut up directly to shew the 'stop.' Thus in place of $9 c+10 e$, or (;:) in my symbols, which would have absolutely no sound, I must have (;'h!) or (;'lı!), often heard in a short checked convulsive congh.
"The effect of organic 'stop' is implied between elements in verbal combinations, such as $t l$ in outlaw, $t d$ in outdo, ete.; where, necessarily, the $t$ is not finished by an organic recoil, as it would be at the end of a word. In these cases of course the 'stop ' does not require to be written." In practical phonctic writing much is not marked which must make its appcarance in delicato phonetic discussions, and

## 14. (wh)-continued.

which is often of supreme philologieal importance. Thus (outlas, outduu) are enough for many purposes; but if we are writing strictly, they are not nearly enough. We require ( $\left.{ }^{\prime} u \cdot>t\right) l<\Delta A:$, $\left.\left.\partial^{\prime} u:>t\right) d<u u \cdot\right)$, where ) is the break explained in the next paragraph. The diphthongal glide is indicated by the accent shewing the element with principal force. The glides generally need not be written if the rule is laid down that there is always a glide between combined symbols. But then we must write (o'ut laA, a'ut duu), and we should thus lose the effect of combination into one
 become the full forms. Gencrally ( $u$ 'tlaA, outduu') are enough. The 'recoil' should always be written when intended to be distinctly pronounced, as

" 10 c . In verbal combinations of elementary sound, each element is inseparably joined to the succeeding one." This refers to the inter-gliding, but is only true as a practical rule in writing. "When any element, except the last in a combination, is finished independently of what follows, the sign of 'hiatus" (10c) is nsed. Thus in analysis, or phonetically 'spelling' a syllable, we should say that $9 a+5 a$ consists of the elements $9 a+10 c+5 a$-interposing a break. The effect of $10 c$ will be understood by pronouncing the word 'bedtime,' in which the $d$ and $t$ are not disjoined, in contrast with the separate pronunciation of the two words 'bed, time.' The symbol $5 f$ is an aspirated hiatus; the symbol $10 c$ is non-aspirated, -a mere interval." I have hitherto marked this (,), but with the more accurate distinctions of glottids, something more is required, and I find ( $)$ ), half of the second half of a parenthesis, a sort of exaggerated comma,-already introduced byanticipation ( $998, d$ ), -the most convenient for this mere break, which may or may not be accompanied by a 'clear' glottid. In this case, ( ) ) is opposed to ( - ).

After much thought and observation I have been led to the following views of these difficult, and yet, philologically, extremely important distinctions. I cannot consider my views complete, but I think that they will serve to form a basis for future work, and are more comprehensive than any yet sug-

## 14. (wh)--continued.

gested in print. They involve not so much a reconstruction, as a more accurate specification of the notation on pp. 10 and 11.

## Material of Spcech-Sounds.

( ${ }^{(i)}$ ) Inspiration, audible inspired breath, the audibility arising from the friction in the air-passages, arising from their constriction and internal roughness, and velocity of the entering air.
('h) Implosion; a dull tbud-like sound arising from suddenly condensing, by the action of the muscles of the inclosing walls, breath confined in the passages, neither passing out of the mouth, nor through the larynx (1097, c. $\left.1113, a^{\prime}\right)$.
( $\ddagger \mathrm{h})$ Click or smack; ; a smart sharp sound produced by suddenly soparating moist parts of the organs, as tongue and palate, etc., independent of inspiration or expiration. It is quite easy to click in the mouth while inspiring and expiring through the nose.
('h) Flatus, audible but unrocalised expiration, the vocal chords well separated, and a full column of breath passing easily. The audibility may be conditioned by degrees of force or uarrowing or interruption of the passages of exit.
("h) Whisper; the edges of the vocal chords are almost but not quite in contact; part of the passing breath is unaffected, part rustles, part is broken into pulses, resembling voice, just as on a flute we hear the musical tone accompanied by the rustle or rushing noise of the performer's breath against the side of the monthpiece.
('h) Voice; the edges of the vocal chords in actual contact, and opening and shutting by the action of expiration and their own elasticity, so as to break all the air into pulses. But the break does not necessarily produce a musical tone. On the contrary, just as in any blown reed (in clarinet, hautboy, etc.), or interrupted air current (in whistles, flutes, ete.), many different musical tones result in this case also, of which several are of nearly the same pitch or even of incommensurable periodic times, and these 'beat' with one another, thus producing a confused noise, or obscure murmur, which is really the 'natural' roice. It is by adapting various resonant chambers to

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## 14. (wh)-continued.

this last sound that we 'select' those musical tones which go to form the distinct 'qualities' of speech-sounds. When ('h) simply is written, it indicates some obscure voice sound which we are unable distinctly to characterise.

In the above notations (h), as usual, is 'diacritic,' and is in fact only used as a 'support' for the other signs, so that when other letters are present (h) is omitted if its absence will occasion no ambiguity. It will be doubled to express prolongation. Most alphabetic letters inherently imply flatus ('h), or voice ('b), some imply clicking ( $\ddagger \mathrm{h}$ ), but none imply inspiration ('i), implosion ('h $h$ ), or whisper ('h). Thus (f) implies flatus or ('h), and (v) implies voice or ('h). Add voice to flatus or flatus to voice and the result is whisper ; thus ('f) $=$ ${ }^{( }{ }^{( } \mathrm{v}$ ) is whispered (f) or (v). In speaking in a so-called whisper, ( $f$ ) remains with flatus, and ( v ) becomes ('v). Similarly ('i, 'a, 'u) are whispered vowels.

Add flatus sign to whisper sign, and the result is made to symbolise flatus only. Thus (" $f$ ) $=($ " $v$ ) $=(f)$ simply. And (" i , " a , " u ) are simple flatus through the vowel positions. The distinctions ("i, 'i, i), flatus, whisper, voice, in connection with the (i)-position are important. I do not symbolise position only, except in the mates ( $p$, $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ), as I find it more distinct to write the word "position" at length, after the symbol of the sound uttered in that position, thus: the ( $f$ )-position.

At the end of a group of letters (') and (') are written for ('h) and ('h), thus ( $i i$, ee', $00^{\prime}, u u^{\prime}$ ), which stand for (ii'h, ee'h, oo'h, ui'h), are the diphthongs (iix, ee., oox, uux), already considered ( $1099, a^{\prime}$ ), when deprived of the permission to superadd a trilled (r), so that $(i i x)=$ either $\left(i i^{\prime}\right)$ or ( $i i^{\prime} r$ r). Again (æt' ${ }^{\text {² }}$ æd) are the same as (æt $\cdot h$, æd'h), and figure the 'recoil.' When this recoil is a pure click, it should always be written as ( $\mathrm{wt}_{\dagger}^{\dagger}$, $\not \mathrm{k}_{+}^{\dagger}$ ), for it is quite exceptional, although we sometimes hear the click first, and then flatus, especially after ( k ), as ( $x \mathrm{k}_{\dagger} \dagger \mathrm{h}$ ). The click sign added to the organ determines the click. Thus $(\mathrm{g})=\left(\mathrm{t}_{+}^{+}\right)$or
 $(\ddagger)=\left(\mathrm{t}_{\ddagger}^{\ddagger}\right)$ or $\left(\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{J}_{\ddagger}^{+}}\right),(\mathrm{g})=\left(\mathrm{K}_{+}^{+}\right)$, see p. 11 . For the mutes ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ), and sonants (b, d, g), ('p) $=\left({ }^{\prime} b\right)=$ whisper, instead of voice, forced into the (p)-position. And $(' \cdot p)=$ imploded ( $p$ ), which is readily

## 14. (wh)-continued.

confused with ('b) on the one hand and ( $p$ ) on the other ( $1113, a^{\prime}$ ).
'The term 'mute' is used for ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ), as they have actually no sound of their own, but only modify other sounds by position, giving rise to glides.

## Vowels.

These are 'voice' modified by resonance chamber. Each has its own definite 'pitch,' and when sung at other pitches is modified by the action of that pitch, in a manner only recently understood, by the researches of Helmholtz, Donders and Koenig, and not yet by any means fully observed or explained. Every variety of pitch and force really alters the character of any particular vowel, which is hence only to be recognized as a 'genus' having several 'species.' In ali cases a vowel is a 'quality' of tone, the appreciation of which differs greatly individually and nationally. Further details are given in my paper on Accent and Emphasis (Philol. Trans. 1873-4, pp. 113-164). I here, for brevity, take the vowels for granted.

## Glottids.

The modes of beginning, ending, and conjoining vowels, being principally due to actions of the glottis, will be termed 'glottids.' They comprise many effects not yet classed, and others known indefinitely as 'breathings, spiritus asper et lenis, aspiration,' etc.
(1) gradual glottid, (1112, b), so that $\left(\left.\right|^{a}\right)=(" a-‘ a-a-\times a-" a)$, flatus gradually falling into whisper, then this into voice, which returns back to whisper and flatus. With mutes, as (papa), it shews that when the (p)-position is assumed and released, the glottis is open, as for ('h), see (1097, $a^{\prime}$ ). Much of what is called post-aspiration is really due to the gradual glottid. I think that what Mr. Sweet (Philol. Trans. 1873, p. 106) calls "the aspiration of the voiceless stops" in Danish, and writes (kнat, thil, рнеqә, рнірә), would be more truly represented by ( $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{at}$ ) or by ( $\mathrm{k}_{1}$ hat), where ( b ) is the flatus glottid, or the gradual glottid. with greater prominence given to the flatus preceding or following the rowel, so that (Iha) is rather (."aa-‘a-a) than ("a-‘a-a).
(,) Clear glottid, $(1112, b)$, the vocal chords are in the position for roice,

## 14. (wh)-continued.

 which begins without any introductory Hatus. This is the position for English mutes, thus ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{a}$ ) as distinct from ( $\mathrm{p} \mathrm{l}^{\mathrm{a}}$ ) or (plia).(;) Check glottid, $(1112, b)$; there is an air-tight closure, which is foreed asunder, and there may easily arise a puff of flatus before the chords vibrate properly, as (;'h) abridged to (;h). Brücke attributes this position to the English mutes, thus ( $\mathrm{p} ; \mathrm{a}$ ), but I think he is in error, as the use of (;) is not an English trick.
(h) Wheezing glottid. Here there is an eseape of flatus, but it does not pass the open glottis, nor between the vocal chords, which are apparently tightly elosed, but through the eartilaginous glottis beyond it. Czermak (Sitzungsberichte der k. Akademie der Wissenschaften, math. naturw. el. vol. 29, No. 12, for 29 April, 1858, Wien, $\mathrm{pp} .576-580$ ) gives the result of actual observations with the laryngoscope on an Arab, corresponding with this description. Prof. F. W. Newman says (on p. 8 of Handbook of Modern Arabic, London, 1866, pp. 190): "Strong $h$ is often heard from Irishmen. It is wheezing and guttural, with something of a $w$ in it at the beginning of a word. The foree of air in the throat is considerable, and is strangely prolonged when it ends a word, as (melii $h$, raa $h$ ) 'good, he went.' "
( $\varepsilon \mathrm{h})$ Trilled wheeze. This differs from ( $k$ ) solely in the production of interruptions or trills, by interposing some rattling mucous.
(8) Bleat or ain. The Arabic $\mathcal{E}$ is the same as ( $\varepsilon \mathrm{g}$ ) with the accompaniment of the voice, so that $(\varepsilon \mathrm{h})=(" \varepsilon)$. If this is taken very gently, the result seems to be $(\mathrm{I})=(,, \varepsilon)$, the Low Saxon glottal trill or quack, which can also be pronounced during a yowel.

Any of these glottids can be uttered with various degrees of force, thins noted.

Medium force requires no note.
(L) evanescent, is searcely pereeptible.
(,) weak, is decidedly beluw the medium.
(.) strong, is decidedly above the medium.
(.,) abrupt, properly strong and clear, is almost explusive.

These force-signs denote contirued pressure, as in the motion of an ordinary bellows. If, when blowing, the end of the nozzle is stopped, the air becomes

## 14. (wh)-continued.

condensed, and, on removing or detaching the stop, issues with explosion, of which (;) may be considered the general sign, ( $p, t, k$ ) being much more moderate explodents. No such signs however are sufficient for all purposes. For anything like a discriminating view of foree I recommend a scries of numbers written in a line below, and forming a scale, 5 being medial foree, 1 just audible, and 9 greatest. By this means sudden changes of force during a syllable can be distinctly registered. For most purposes, however, the much less distinct musieal signs $p p, p, m f, f, f f$, with ereseendo and diminuendo, staccato and other signs, might be written in the line below.
(н) Jerk. This, like explosion, can be imitated with the bellows by sudden inerease of pressure, followed by a decrease. It is not at all necessary that the increase of pressure should be great; it is only neeessary that it should be sudden and not continued. This is my meaning of ( H ), and it is evidently not Mr. M. Bell's $5 f,\left(1127, b^{\prime}\right)$. When this jerk is accompanied by flatus, we have ( $\mathrm{H}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ ), which may be more conveniently abridged to ( Hh ) than to ( $\mathrm{H}^{\circ}$ ) as heretofore, because ( $\mathrm{H}^{\dagger}$ a) ought to mean the whispered vowel ('a) commenced with a jerk (н), but (нha) will mean a jerked flatus ( $\mathrm{H}^{\circ} \mathrm{h}$ ) gliding on to a yowel (a). Observe however that (на) simply, without any interposed flatus, is not only possible, but, I think (I do not feel sure), the more common Englisk and, as will appear hereafter, modern Indian sound. ( H ) may also be combined with ( h ), as ( H [ ha), which would shew distinet flatus jerked out before the rowel. I would distinguish between (нha) $=$ ( $\mathrm{H}^{\text {cha }}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{H} \mathrm{l}^{\text {ha }}$ ) by using the latter only when the flatus is sharp and distinet. The former merely shews jerked flatus without distinguishing its prominence.

## Glides, Slurs, Breaks.

$>-<$ Glide. When roice is continued throngh elange of position, we have a voice glide. When flatus changes to roice, possibly through whisper, or conversely, we have a mixed glide. When flatus continues, we have a flatus glide. By placing the symbols of the two extreme sounds in juxtaposition, the glide is always im-

## 14. (wh)-continucd.

 plied. But it is sometimes convenient to mark it by $>$ when the position changes to one closer, and by $<$ when it changes to one opener ( $1111, b^{\prime}$ ), but by $(-)$ when the positions are equally open or close, as in maze $=(\mathrm{m}<c e>\mathrm{z}$-s $)$, or (meezs): The contracted form requires the introduction of such a sign as, Break, for which, up to p. 998, I have generally used the clear glottid (.), see (1128, a, cd). Any glottid will form a break, as (ана, aнha, a;a, a, a aja), but (a)a) simply breaks without indicating the precise mode in which the disconnection is effected.

- Slur. We may also produce the semblance of a break by diminishing force, without taking off the action of the voice at all. We might write ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}$ ) to shew this effect, or interpose - , a slur, which differs from > and from (,.) by implying a very brief diminution of force, and is therefore opposed to (H) the jerk. In music (H) corresponds to staccato, and - to legato. Two vowels connected by a $>$ or $<$ glide form a diphthong, the glide being held longer than one of the extreme vowels, and the force increasing or diminishing throughout. This is shewn by an acute accent placed over the yowel which has greatest force, as (ái, iu, ia) or (á $>\mathrm{i}$, $\mathbf{i}-\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{a})$. See $(419, c)$. Two vowels slurred form an Italian diphthong, and the force is nearly even, as $(i \backsim 0, m i-E \backsim i)$, but they reckon as one syllable. In this case we may unite them and omit the acute, thus (io, miei). Employing the mode of representing force by a scale of numbers, we might ẁrite (á>i, í-u,

$$
5432 \quad 5432
$$

j-ú, $i \smile_{0, ~ m i \smile E ー i), ~ b u t ~ t h i s ~ n o t a t i o n ~}^{\text {a }}$ 234554245542454245
is incomplete without proper indications of length and pitch, which may be effected by a second line of figures, from 1 to 9 , placed above, 5 indieating medium length, accompanied either by such marks as ( $-\cdots$ ) or ( $\cdot \cdot . \cdot \cdot$ ), as given on p. 12, shewing continued, rising or falling pitch, or by notes of the musical scale, indicating the commencing pitch of each vowelい2
sound, as ( $a>i$ ), which shews: by

$$
5432
$$

the middle line, that the vowel (a) glides on to (i) from an opener to a

## 14. (wh)-continued.

closer position, and has the stress; by the under line, that the force with which (a) is pronounced is to that with which (i) is pronounced as 5 to 2, but that the force of the roice gradually diminishes from the 5 to 2 through the glide, in which only the forces 4 and 3 are noted; by the upper line, that the lengths of the (a) glide and (i) are respectively $1,2,3$, and that the voice continuously descends in pitch, by an unstated amount.

In violin music slurred notes are played to the same stroke of the bow; glissées notes have the finger slid down from one position to the other; detached notes have each a distinct bowing; staccato notes have the bow suddenly touched and raised. These will serve to distinguish $(->)$ н) respectively.

We are now in a position to represent and appreciate the different theories of aspiration.

In Sanscrit there are five letters in a series, as ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{pH}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{bн}, \mathrm{~m}$ ), as I have hitherto written them. The Prâtiçâkhyas speak of these as first, second, third, fourth, and fifth or last. Now the Ath. Veda Pr. (Whitney's edition, p. 16) says: "The second and fourth of each series are aspirates," on which Prof. Whitney observes, "The term ushman, literally 'heat, hot vapour, steam,' is in the grammatical language applied to designate all those sounds which are produced by a rush of unintonated breath [flatus] through an open position of the mouth organs, or whose utterance has a certain similarity to the escape of steam through a pipe; they are the sibilants and aspirations or breathings. In the term soshonan, 'aspirated mute,' and its correlative anûshman, 'unaspirated mute,' ushman is to be understood not in this specific sense, but in that of 'rush of air, expulsion of unintouated breath.' ", This, however, is merely his own conjecture. There scems nothing in the explanation given of $\hat{u} s h m a n$ to require flatus rather than voice. It is the explosive rush alone which comes into consideration. The native commentator on the passage quotes the words sasthânầr $\hat{u} s h m a b h i h$ referring to the "aspirates," which Prof. Whitney says, would be most naturally translated 'with their, corresponding ûshmans or spirants,' "but," says he, "this is hardly to be tolerated, since it would give us

## 14. (wh)-continued.

ts and $d s$ instead of th and $d h$ as the dental aspirates." The commentator, however (ibid.), cites another authority, who says: "Another has said the fourths are formed with $h$," [considered afterwards]. "some knowing ones have said that there are five 'first' mutes" [riz. (k, kj, $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{p})$ ]. "Of these, by the successive accretion of secondary qualities, guna, there takes place a conversion into others. They are known as 'seconds,' when conibined with the qualities of jihecamûliya" [identified with (kh), ibid. p. 22], " $\varsigma$, sh, $s$ and upadhmáníya" [identified with (ph), ibid. pp. 26 and 30]. "The same, uttered with intonation, are known as 'thirds,' and these, with the second spirant, are known as 'fourths.' " This 'second spirant' seems to mean Sanscrit $h$, as we shall see hereafter. The 'seconds' are not, I think, intended to be fully (k-kh, $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{f}}-\mathrm{Jh}, \mathrm{T}-\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{t}-\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{ph}$ ), although these are sounds into which they might develope. At any rate we have (.t-s. p-ph) in high German $z, p f$, and English picture gives almost precisely ( T -sh). But I take them to be merely ( $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{I}}^{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{l}!\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{T} \mathrm{T}_{1}^{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{t}_{1} \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{pl}_{1} \mathrm{~h}$ ), arising from commencing these letters with the open glottis, as ( $\mathrm{k}_{1}$ ), etc., and making the resulting flatus andible. If the mute-position were ouly slightly relaxed, (k-kh), ete., would result. But if it opened fairly on to the vowel, we should have the mixed glide ( $\mathrm{k} \mid \mathrm{h}<\mathrm{a}$ ), etc. This would be tantamount to the Danish consonants, and might, if jerked, be written (kulha), etc. The reference to the spirants would then merely indicate the nature of the effeet, not the exact effect, which is certainly totally different from the classical examples inkhorn, haphazard, nuthook, for these when written fully are ( $i \cdot>\mathrm{q}-\mathrm{k}$ ) -
 $n<\partial^{\cdot}>t$ juh $u>k^{\bullet}$, where there is no ( $k<$ Hhai, $_{\text {, }} \mathrm{p}<$ нhæz, $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{Hh} u \mathrm{k}$ ), the mutes and jerk being totally unconneeted. The trouble arises with the sonants $g h, j h$, etc., for which there could not possibly issue a flatus without interrupting the voice, and saying ( $g^{\prime} h-\mathrm{h}^{h}<\mathrm{a}$ ) or ('hguba), neither of which appear probable.

The initial ( $\mathrm{H}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{Hh}, \mathrm{h}$ ), or ( ml h ) scems to be what is commonly understood by the spiritus asper, while simple (1) is possibly the spiritus lenis. Prof.
14. (wh)-continued.

Whitney says (ibid. p. 66) : "The pure aspiration $h$ is a corresponding surd to all the sonant rowels, scmivowels and nasals of the alphabet; that is to say, it is produced by an expulsion of breath through the mouth organs in any of the positions in which those letters are uttered ; it has no distinctive position of its own, but is determined in its mode of pronunciation by the letter with which it is most nearly connected." This makes his aspiration (which must not be confounded with Sanscrit $h$, or with any other person's $h$ for the moment) to be my ( h ), whether before or after a vowel, and does not involve the jerk (i) at all. The Tâitt. Pr. says of the visarjaniya, "some regard it as having the same position with the preceding vowel." "This latter," observes Prof. Whitney thereupon (ibid. p. 21), " is the most siguificant hint which any of the Prâtiçâkhyas afford us respecting the phonetic valuc of the rather problematical visarjaniya, indicating it as a mere uncharacterised breathing, a final $h . "$ It is, however, strictly characterised by being a distinet flatus through the positiou of the preceding voiced letter. From the usual Sanserit sanhita action this flatus is affected by the succeeding consouant, producing many curious effects, to be considered presently.

The Japanese arrange their syllabary in groups of five according to their five vowels, which sounded to me, from the mouth of a native, as ( $\mathrm{a}, i, u, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{o}$ ). These consonants seem to affect aspirates and post-aspirates rery differently. Thus I seemed, to hear the whole syllabary thus, as it was most patiently explained to me by a Japanese gentleman, but great allowances must be made for a single hearing on my part :

| 1. (a |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. $k^{a}$ | $\mathrm{k}[i$ | $\mathrm{k}^{2 /}$ | ke | ko |
| 3. sa | sji | se | se | so |
| 4. $\mathrm{t}^{\text {a }}$ | tsji | tss | tle | to |
| 5. na | ni | n" | ne | no |
| 6. нha | kjhi | phu | Hhe | Hh |
| 7. ma | mi | m 4 | me | no |
| 8. Ја | $i$ | , | e | נió |
| 9. 1ra | ${ }_{1 r} i$ | ${ }_{1} \mathrm{ru}$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{re}$ | ${ }^{1}$ ro |
| 10. va | $i$ | u | e | 0 |
| 11. ga | gij | $\mathrm{g}^{4}$ | gje | go |
| 12. za | $z i$ | z, | ze | zo |
| 13. da | dzji | dzu | de | do |
| 14. ba | bi | br | be | bo |
| 15. $\mathrm{pl}^{\text {a }}$ | PI ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | pla | pe | po) |

## 14. (wh)-contimued.

The symbol ( ${ }^{1} \mathrm{r}$ ) in line 9 means very short (1), on the priuciple of (1116, ba) followed by trilled (r). My teacher seemed unable to pronounce ( r ) with an entirely free tongue. He involuntarily struck the palate first, and although he seemed to remove the tongue inmediately, he produced so much of an (1) effect, that the real $\langle\mathbf{r}$ ), also very briefly trilled, became obscured. This pause before trilling resembled the cateh in harmonium reeds by which they refuse to speak when very suddenly called on, unless there is a percussive action. The sound ( ${ }^{\mathrm{r}}$ ) is very remarkable for its numerous Oriental relations. The symbols (se, tse) in lines 3 and 4 are given with great hesitation, the (s) seemed to be prolonged and the vowel very short and indistinct, with a kind of hiss running through it; when the speaker prolonged the syllable, his lips came together, and he made a complete (suru) to finish with. Perhaps (sseu) might represent the sound, but I was unable at one sitting to understand it, notwithstanding the great patience of my instructor. But this is not the chief point of interest, for it only shews the action of the hiss (s) on a following ( $u$ ). Of course all my coronal or gingival (t, d) may be erroneous. I was not on the look out for dental (.t d), and I ean only say that if the letters were dental, the dentality was not strongly marked. The change of the aspirate in (rha kjh $i$ $\mathrm{ph} u$ нhe нио) is suffieiently remarkable. I will not guarantee (нha нhe нho) as against (на не но), but there was no greater change. In (kjhi, phit) a consonant had taken the place of the simple aspirate, and in each case it was not the next related consonant, not (Jhi whee), but one step further advanced. The ( $\mathrm{ph} u$ ) was very distinctly ascertained not to be ( $\mathrm{f} u t$ ), as it is quietly written by Lepsius. My Japanese teacher had had so much difficulty in learning to say our (f) that he utterly disclaimed it. Now, why this change here only? On uttering the English words $h e$, who, I experience no tendency to fall even into (shi, whu). I do not
 $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{huu}$ ), and certainly not with such force as to approach (Jhii, whau). If I try for (nhi, wha), there seems to come a gentle puff of flatus before the vowel, which has no tendeney to become a hiss. And I have not remarked this

## 14. (wh)-continued.

hissing tendency even in German hier, husten. So far as I am concerned, so far as I seem to hear others speak (I speak with great diffidence, knowing the great liability to err owing to my 'personal equation'), I do not hear in the English aspirate a strong flatus, or any flatus through the vowel position, betore the vowel. I am acntely sensitive to any 'dropping of an $h$.' But I do not hear ( $\mathbf{4}$ "iii-ii, H "un-uu) for he, who. I believe I say purely (ніі, нии), at any rate I find even an intentional (rhii, Hhuu) to be somewhat of an effort, and (H]hii, h! hun) to be a great effort. Still I know that at least (Hh) exists, and very possibly ( HI h ), and I shall therefore generally assume that writers on sound mean (uh). But Mr. M. Bell's $9 a$, which I bave hitherto transliterated by ( $\mathrm{H}^{\wedge}$ ), -meaning ( $\mathrm{H}^{\circ} \mathrm{h}$ ), and henceforth written (нh),-is certainly sometimes simple ('h) or ( T ). Thus (Visible Speech, p. 50) he writes "silent respiration'" by $9 a+9 m+10 f+9 a+$ $9 m+10 b$, which must be, I think, (,'thi, ,'hh) = gentle, flatus, drawn inwards, gentle, flatus prolonged (outwards). The 'outwards' is not written either by him or by me, the prolongation is shewn by doubling the $h$, and the sign gentleness is placed in a different order in my notation. "Painful respiration" is written $9 a+10 b+$ $10 f+9 \varepsilon+5 f+9 b+10 b$, or (' $\mathrm{hh}_{i} ; 7 h$ ), that is flatus, prolonged, inwards, cateh, (ontwards), wheeze prolonged, but perhaps the $9 b$ should be ('h) and not ( $h$ ), or simply (.'h), see (1126, a). Thus his "naso-guttural respiration," or $9 b$ $+9 d+10 b+10 f+9 b+9 d+10 b$, seems to be (.'hh if .'hhs) strong flatus, prolonged, nasal, inwards, strong flatus, prolonged, nasal, (outwards).

To returu to the Japanese, it would seem that the positions of ( $e, 0, a$ ) do not squeeze the uttered flatus sufficiently to produce a sensible frication or hiss, but the ( $i, u$ ) positions do so. Hence
 (Jhi, whit) or (kjhi, phu). Now in combining Sanscrit words in sanhitâ, we have necessarily as strong an action of any consonant position on a preceding flatus as in the Japanese vowels $(i, u)$; that is, each consonant converts the flatus into its own continuant or spirant. Hence the final visarjaniya, which was probably merely ( fh ), or a final flatus through the vowel position,

## 14. (wh)-continued.

developed before ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{p}$ ) rcspectively, the continuants (kh, Jh, sh, s, ph2, see Whitney (ibill. p. 96). The first and last of these, (kh) or jihvâmûlîya, and (ph) or upadhmànîya, are never heard in Sanserit except when thus 'generated,' and hence, although recognized under these names by the native grammarians, are not accoinmodated with scparate signs. They are by no means peculiar in this respect, either in Sanscrit or other systems of writing. This scems conclusive as regards the value of $\overline{2}$, for which (sh) answers in every respect, as a palatal hiss, as degenerating into (sh) (Whitney, ibid. p. 23 ), and as corresponding to ( $k, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{kh}$, sh) in cograte languages. See ( $1120, b$ ) to ( $1121, c b$ ). The flatus of the final visarjaniya, therefore, corresponds closely with flatus after mutes.

Now as to Sanscrit ह, usually written $h$. The following are the native descriptions (Whitney, ibid. p. 21). "Of the throat sounds, the lower part of the throat is the producing organ. That is to say, as the commentator goes on to explain, the upper part of the throat, as place of production, is approached by the lower part of the throat, as instrument of production. As the sounds constituting the class, he mentions $a$, in its short, long, and protracted values, $h$, and the visarjaniya." The Rik Pr. classes $h$ and the visarjaniya as chestsounds; the Tâitt. Pr. reckons only these two as throat-sounds, and adds, "some regard $h$ as having the same positnon with the following vowel, and visarjaniya with the prcceding vowel." From the latter we previonsly doduced the value of risarjantya as simply ( h ). But $h$ is nol flatus; it is voice, being classed by the natire commentator (ib. p. 18) with the vowels, sonant mutes, and semivowels. This Prof. Whitney, taking $h$ to be ( b ) in Sanscrit as well as in his own English (1132, $a^{\prime}$ ), calls a "striking anomaly." It is certainly impossibe that $h$ should mean ( $h$ ) and be a voiced sound. Prof. Whitney says that in the fullest account (that in the Tâitt. Pr.) we read "that, while sound [roice] is produced in a closed throat, and simple breath [flatus] in an open one, the $h$-tone is uttered in an intermediate condition; and that this $h$-tone is the emitted material in the consonant $h$, and in 'fourth' mutes or

## 14. (wh)-continued.

somant aspirates." And then Prof. W. adds: "I confess myself unable to derive any distinct idea from this description, knowing no intermediate utterance between breath and sound, excepting the stridulous tone of the loud whisper, which I cannot bring into any connection with an $h$. The Rik Pr. declares both breath and sound [flatus and voice] to be present in the sonant aspirates and in $h$, which could not possibly be true of the latter, unless it were composed, like the former, of two separate parts, a sonant and a surd; and this is impossible." Now it is evident that the writers are attempting to describe something which they can only vaguely hint at, for the whole glottal action was evidently unknown to them, that is, they had only rague subjective feeling in place of actual observation to deal with, and they were obliged to invent their language as they proceeded. The wonder is, not that they should be in. distinct, but that they should have been gencrally so much more distinct than the host of European grammarians and orthoepists who succeeded them. Now the last indication, which is so impossible to Prof. Whitney, corresponds closely enough to the sensations produced by a buzz, in which there is much obstruction, so that the tone is broken, and the cffect is felt as that of a mixture of breath and voice ( $1101, c^{\prime}$ ). The sound of a whisper (' h ), which really partakes of both characters ( $1129, c^{\circ}$ ), would be too weak. The buzz results from much interruption to the tone, producing many strong beats, as heard in bass chords on an harmonium, and the 'natural' voice ( $1128, d^{\prime}$ ). It appears to me then that the whole description of the Taitt. Pr. can be read thus: " $h$ is a glottal buzz." There is, however, only one such sound, the bleat (8), see ( $1130, c)$. This is fully glottal, and can be uttered in the same position as the following vowel. In fact it is often uttered simultancously with the vowel, which we may indicate by writing the vowel with a small \& below, thus ( $\mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{a}}$ ). Then by ( ga ) we properly mean ( $\varepsilon^{a}+a$ ), which is the exact counterpart of ( f ha) $=($ "aa +a$)$. It may also in this case be nasalised, explaining the rule, "After $h$ is inserted a nûsikya before a nasal mute" (Whitncy, ibid. p. 66), so that brahma would be perhaps

## 14. (wh)-continued.

(bra $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{ma}$ ). Any one who has listened to numerous sheep bleating and noted their various tones (as I have done today, 21 July, 1873, in Kensington Gardens), will have observed how extremely nasal they are, as are also the suarling beats of the caniue $r$, which we have all learned "sonat de narc." It may also be uttered with a jerk, so that (gнga) is quite conceivable. The forms (kiyha, guga) are then exactly correlative. I give the above as theoretical restitutions of the Sanscrit 'seconds and fourths.' founded ropon an interpretation of ancient native explanations, as translated by Prof. Whitney. But it does not follow that they are correct. I may have misunderstood the translator, the translator may have misunderstood the native author, and, very probably, the native author himself may not have been himself clearly conscious of his own feelings, may have failed to express himselt properly, and may have been hampered with conventional terms. It becomes important, therefore, to eramine the existing native use of these 'seconds' and 'fourths,' and the aspirate, all of which are living and siguificant in modern Hindustani.
If the observations of Brücke upon a moonshee, as detailed by Rumpelt (on pp. 138-140 of Das natürliche System der Sprachlaute, Halle, 1869, 8 vo. pp. 227), are correct, the first (книa) remains, and the second (gнеа) is changed. He says: "The mutes explode with open glottis (bei nicht töneuder Stimritze); when not aspirated, the glottis is immediately coutracted for voice, so that the vowel may sound directly after the closure is relaxed; when aspirated, the contraction of the glottis is delayed, the flatus is allowed to escape for an instant through the open glottis, and $h$ results, gliding on to the following vowel as the glottis again contracts for voice." 'This corresponds really to ( $k, a, k_{1} h a$ ). The Indian himself said, according to Arendt (Rumpelt, ib. p. 139), that the German $p, t, k$, were neither aspirated nor notaspirates, but nearer to the former than the latter. That is, probably, he heard ( $\mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{l}}$ ). The 'fourths' were never pronounced (g'uha), as is customary with German Sanscritists, but "generally the glottis was spened before the relaxation of the closure of the mouth,

## 14. (wh)-continued.

so that the sonant, begun with voice, exploded as voiceless, which might be written $g k h a^{\prime \prime}=(g-\mathrm{k}$ ha) or nearly ('gklha). "When this was not the case, the $h$ was fully separated from the mute, as in syllabic division, e.g. pig$h \ddot{u} l n a, a d-h a, a b-h i$, and eveu finally as bag-h." These cases are both easy, as (adjulha, bag)н'h). But Rumpelt adds: "Be this as it may, I doubt whether the pronunciation of this Indian scholar gives the universal rule, but think it may result from a deterioration which is not universal in the east," and he prefers ('g) н $\quad$ ba), which is of course possible, but totally opposed to the native commentators just cited, who make the aspiration sonant.

The above identification of the ancient Sauscrit $h$ with the Semitic (g) is quite new. Prof. Whitney (op. cit. p. 18) suggests the Arabic (grh), but this is formed with the uvula, tongue and palate, and the Sanscrit $h$ must be glottal. The same objection applies to (gh). which Bopp adopted, and to which I leaned before reading the native explanations just cited. That (६) should be confused with (grh) is natural. Even in Denmark the ( I ) is imitated by $(\cdot)$, and $(\mathrm{I}, r)=(,, \&,,, g r h)$. In the Septuagint we constantly find $\gamma$ for $\nu$, and $\gamma$ was then probably (gh) as new. Sometimes the Greeks omit it, and it is generally supposed that the letter y represented both souuds (g, grt), but this is not at all phonetically necessary. Consequently that an historical घ $g h=$ (gg), which is the etymological descent of Sanscrit $h$ in almost all cases (Whitney, ib. p. 18), should degenerate into (£) by the omission of the (g), is what this hypothesis would lead us to anticipate. Sanscrit $h$ corresponds with Latin $h, g, c$, Greek $\chi, \gamma, \kappa$. Lithuanian $z^{\prime}, s z, g=(\mathrm{zh}$, sh, g), Gothic $h, g$, old high German $k$, and Persian ( $\mathrm{hh}, \mathrm{s}$, krh), which are also explicable by (¢) through the (grh) relation. Although this (g) value of $\mathrm{Su} . h$ is thus seen to answer every required condition, yet the extreme difficulty which English people feel in appreciating (8) leads ine to recommend them the use of the easy (ir) in its place, where no tlatus at all is uttered, thus distingnishing ख घ as (k]ha, gira), surd and sonant.

Since writing the above I had the

## 14. (wh)-continued.

opportunity, already mentioned (1102, $b$ ), of examining the pronunciation of Mr. M. O. Mookerjey. So far as I could observe, his $h$ ह was a pure jerk ( n ), not very strong and unaccompanied by any hiss. The "first" क (k) was thoroughly English ( $k, a$ ), without any tendency to (kja) that I could detect. In the "second" ख I heard generally ( $k$ [ $\mathfrak{l}$ ), sometimes ( $k$ ha), but scarcely ever ( kH lha), unless perhaps be was particularly anxious to make me hear the sound. The "third" ग was indistinguishable from English (ga), there was none of the German inflatus ('ga), or implosion ('ka). The "fourth" घ scemed simply (дна), that is in pronouncing (ga) the vowel was brought out with a little more force. Most Englishmen would have considered his (kla, gha) as mere foreign 'corruptions' of (ka, ga). There was nothing in them that they had not heard from foreigners, and from Irishmen constantly. The sound was not (gea), but of course (gna) might rery easily become a refinement of such a sound. The point however which struck me was, that the old Indian ह, which the native commentators classed with the sonants, was still a sonant, to the extent of not being a surd, with not even a buzz or trill about it, but merely a method of jerking out the following vowel. My instruetor volunteered that when he said घ he only pronounced the following vowel "a little more strongly," and he mentioned, in order to repudiate it, the late Prof. Goldstücker's pronunciation (g'uha), of his own accord, that is, without anything said by me to lead up to his observation. It appears then that the recommendation I have given to call ख घ (kIha gHa) accords so closely with one native gentleman's pronunciation that when I thus pronounced to him he acknowledged the sounds. I did not take the case of a finul $h$, as in (bragma), and hence this information was incomplete.

It was in order to complete the information I had received from Mr. Mookerjey, and to contrast it with the usages of others, that I obtained the assistance of Mr. Gupta (1096, a), who was pointed out to me by I'rof. Childers, of the India Office Library, as the person from whom I could obtain the

## 14. (wh)-cortinued.

most trustworthy native assistance in London, and I am greatly indebted to Mr. Gupta for the patience and care with which he sought to meet my wishes. Of course it would be advisablo to hear very much more than it was possible to condense into an hour's observation, and also to hear different readers of equal information rearl the same words. But as phonetic observations upon cultivated native Sanscrit pronunciation at the present day, made by persons who bave studied the theory of speech-sounds, are certainly rare, I think it will be advisable in this place to reproduce the notes I made at the moment, as a basis for future observations. I have already had to refer three times to the information then obtained (1096, a. 1103, c. 1120, c), but it will be convenient to repeat the notes in their proper place. The method adopted was to present certain combinations in Sanscrit characters, prepared beforehand, and, by hearing them repeatedly pronounced, to note the sounds in palaeotype, making a few basty observations, which were cxpanded immediately after Mr. Gupta's departure, while my recollection of the conversation that had passed was quite fresh. I shall now print the Sanscrit and palacotype, with nearly a verbatim reproduction of those notes, which I regard as documents, and hence bracket all subsequent additions.

## Modern Indian Promunciation of Sanscrit.

च्न (a) \#्रा (aa) द (i) ई (ii) उ (u)

お (nu). Observe the pairs ( $a$ aa, $i$ ii, u uu). [The short vowels were distinctly of a different quality from the long. The two first were not $(\partial, A A)$, as usually laid down. The Seotch ( $a$ ) and English ( $i, u$ ) were very marked.]

FE oceasionally ('ri) when pronounced separately, but otherwise ( $\mathrm{r} i$ ), not (uri). [Also not (ari). Dentality not noticed.]

启 ('rii, rii) under the same circumstances.

ल्ट (lri) when pronounced separately, but कृप्ट was (klip) [exactly like the English word clip], not (klrip). [In this (lri) the (l) seemed to me more evident and the ( $r$ ) less evident than in the Japauese ( ${ }^{r}$ ), so that the result might

## 14．（wh）－continued．

be rather written（ $1 \mathbf{r}$ ）．But as the sound never occurs except as the name of a letter，very little weight is attach－ able to this observation．］

ल（lrii）so called，but it does not occur separately．

ए（ee）or even（ee），distinctly very open［and this was still clearer in combination］．

ऐ（ai），occasionally（ $\alpha i$ ），and when pronounced separately，fully（a－i） ［with the Italian looseness and slur］．
\＃्रो（oo）quite open，nearly（aA）in connected words［no approach to（oo， $\left.00^{\prime} w{ }^{\prime}\right]$ ］．

象（áu）or（áu，á－u）as for（ái）． ［In neither（ái）nor（áu）was there a further prolongation of the first element than is natural to a slurred combina－ tion，in comparison to the English type （Lá $\frac{1 i}{}$ ）．］

का（k，aa）quite English［that is， with closed glottis；not as in Germany］．

खा（ $\mathrm{k}[\mathrm{aa}$ ），it seemed to be merely the open glottis（ $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ），but oceasionally （ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ）might be heard．［It was distinctly not（kнaa）or（kнlhaa），and totally different from $k i k$ in the celebrated inkhorn．］

गू（guu）English［no Germau in－ flatus（ $1113, b$ ）］．

घ（gниu），with stronger vowel，dis－ tinctly not（g＇нuи，g＇нhuu），which was derided．［The sound may be beard from many an Irishman saying goose． The vowel seemed to be jerked out quietly with the（ H ）which is natural to me．The form（g．uu）would scem to imply a greater continuity of pressure， and（g．，uu）too much abruptncss． Neither does（ $\mathrm{g}^{\text {l }} \mathrm{uu}$ ）with the sign of closeness $(1127, b)$ appear correct．The result was identical with Mr．Mooker－ jey＇s．It appears，then，that the con－ jecture respecting the pronnnciation of み ध घ as（bu dн gн），－where I ought of course to have written（． d ），－ which first led me theoretically to the assumption of a pure jerk（H）as the basis of post－aspiration（ $1125, b^{\prime}$ ），is entirely confirmed by the actually ob－ served practice of two native Bengalese gentlemen．］
fि．Not used initially，this ङ is merely（ q ），and is used final for

## 14．（wh）－continued．

necessary（anusuáara）．［Mr．Gupta did not seen able to say（ $\mathrm{q}^{i}$ ），and hence the combination was not pronounced．］

चो（kjoo），Bell＇s $2 e(15, b)$ ，distinetly an explodent，no hiss at all，not（tj）． ［Sce（1120，e）．］

छो but in this letter a hiss occurred （ $\mathrm{kJj}_{\mathrm{j}}^{\mathrm{hoo}}$ ），and hence the resemblance to English（ t ．sh）was very close，in fact （ t ，sh）was near enough．［The close squeezing of（ kJ ）when opened on an open glottis，as（kJI），necessarily en－ genders（ Jh ），and the resulting（kjJh） comes so close in effect to English（ t ，sh）， that the two sounds are readily con－ fused，and I have no dorbt that I confused them at the time，as（ $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{j}}$ ）was not a famliar sound to me．］

जT（gaa）decidedly an explodent， and not（d，zh），nor（zh）simply．

みT（gј＇наа）for（gднаа）；the inten－ tion was always（gıнаа），but（g＇наа） was occasionally said；some speakers， according to Mr．Gupta，make the sound closer than others．［This was his expression when I pointed out to him the insertion of（＇），but observe that even then no（ Hh ）－that is，no flatus－was introduced．The combina－ tion is rare，but（ $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{Haa}$ ）is quite as easy as（днаа），after a very little practice．］

F（ nj ），very close as iu closest French， but not（nu）at all，only used before （ k ，gf）．［I heard（ nj ），but this may have been an error of ear for（qJ）．］

टा（t，aa），simple English（ $t$ ），no in－ version of tongue at all，see $(1096, b)$ ．

ता（． $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{a} \mathrm{a}$ ），pure dental（． t ），tongue against teeth，French $t$ ；the only English dentals，according to Mr． Gupta，are（th，dh）．［These（ $t$ ，，t） were pronounced with vowels，thus （taa taa，tii ，tii，tun ，tuu），in rapid alternation，till the distinction became as clear as between（sh，th）．］

था（．tpaa）or（．tphaa），ठT（traa）or （t $\dagger$ haa）．［These were writteu in a dif－ ferent order to the last pair，and rapidly alternated，to shew the distinction．］

धा（，dıаа），ढा（dиаа）．
ना（naa），before a dental त द（ n ） is heard，and the somnd is perhaps alwars（ 11 ）．

एiT（naa），before a cerebral ट ङ （ n ）is heard，before a vowel न एा are both（ 11 ），not distinguished（ $1096, c^{\prime}$ ）．
14. (wh)-continued.

पी (p,ii), quite Euglish, फी (plii, plhii).

वू (bun), भू (bниu) distinct, no approach to (b'ıhnu).

मी (mii), English.
ये (sec), English (J).
रे (rec) or (ree). After a dental $r$ is dental, the tongue not being drawn back, as (.t.r). Mr. Gupta conld not recall a word where $r$ stands after a ccrebral. [Initially Mr. Gupta had always an apparent tendency to insert (o) or ('h) before (.r), thus (0,rii); this arose perhaps from some volce escaping before the beat of the trill became evident. The lraitiçâkhyas require a ('h) to be inserted distinctly between ( $r$ r) and a following 'spirant' (sh, sh. s, it). and more briefly between ( $r$ ) and any other following consonant. I did not observe this, which is, however, common in European speech when there is a trill. I bave frequently not noticed the dentality of $(x)$, probabiy from not knowing it well.]

ले (lee), English [that is, I did not detect any special dentality; as (1)].

वे (vee), but often (Lree) [that is, with very moderate dentality], and apparently very like (bh, b) occasionally, in Bengalee always (b). See ( $1103, c$ ). After a consonant $\bar{व}$ is quite (w) or rather (u-) diphthongising with the following rowel, and I find य becomes a similar diphthongising (i-) under the same circumstances.
शू षी both (shii), no distinction whatever made between श ष, they are different letters having the same sound; occasionally $\%$ seems more retracted, but the distinction is now quite lost. See (1120, $c^{\prime}$ ).

सी (sii), English. In conversational Bengalee often (1I), not (1ih). [The last fact was ascertained by special questioning, as I auticipatel hearing ( H ) ), on account of the hiss, and the old $\hat{\epsilon} \xi$ sex relations.]

हT (naa). When Mr. Gupta was emphatic, ( H 'h) erept out ; but it was always a very mild sonud and the intention was evidently to emit no flatus. It was in no respect an ( $\mathbf{n h}$ ) which could have grown from a (kh). In

## 14. (wh)-continued.

conversation uneducated Bengalees leave it out altogether. [A remarkable fact in connection with our own frequent omission of $h$, and its powerlessness to save a vowel from elision in older English as well as Greek and Latin, and its disappearance in modern Greek and Romance.]

This pronunciation is after Benares and not Bengalee custom. [In addition to the above pronunciations of simple syllables, I tried a few actual words, which will illustrate the Sauscrit phonetic synthesis; but this is so peculiar and important, and was so totally unanticipated by me, that instead of a ferr examples at the end of an hour's instruction, a long study should be devoted to it. Some of the following observations, however, appear to be new.]

ग्रातिशूाख्य (praatioháaik liá), the य occasioned an anticipation of (i) in the preceding syllable, and the ख्य became $=\left(k l^{i}\right.$ á $)$, that is, nearly $=(-k s h a) .[W e$ have here an instance of the anticipation of a following vowel by absolutely inserting it audibly in the preceding syllable, just as a note of a following chord is often anticipated to form a dissomance in the preceding chord, whereas in the German mmlaut the following rowel merely gradates the preceding in a peculiar manner. Next we see the change of ( $J$ ) to (i) after a consonant, this rowel howerer diphthongising with the following. The action of ( $k_{i}$ ) on this rowel necessarily produces ("i), which is scarcely separable from ( sh ). In fact a written (aak Ja ) becomes a spoken (álikshiá), the hiss after the ( k ), which arises from commencing with an open glottis, being converted by the following (i), used for (J), into the true palatal (sh), by the same action which determined the native rule: "risarjaniya, before a surd consonant, beconıes of like position with the following sound" (Wh bitney, ibid. p. 96). As I was totally unprepared for this complicated action, I was much impressed by it, and ascertained the correctness of my analysis by several repetitions. On inquiring respecting the position of the accent, the answer was:] No accent beyond the quantity, no other accent known. Mr. Gupta knew that accents were written in the Velas, but he knew nothing of the Vedas, or of the meaning of their

## 14. (wh)-continued.

accents. He read by quantity strictly [making a very marked distinction between short and long rowels. In speaking English Mr. Gupta seemed never to place the accent wrongly, as I have heard Indians not unfrequently do, who spoke English otherwise very well. He must have therefore fully understood my question. The next words are from Bopp's Nalus, lib. i. sloka 3, and the Latin translation added is Bopp's].

ब्रह्म एयो religiosus (brámuái, nnjióo), (bra!) followed by a silence, not ( H ), not ( n h), not ( I ). [The (:) is a sudden check to the sound, a dead pull up; but it did not seem to be done with a jerk, although it imitated the jerk and replaced it. It was not (\&), there was bence no such effect as (brea ${ }_{6}$ ), already described ( $1135, a$ ), indeed the ह $h$, although written as interlaced with the म $m$, instead of allowing the nasality of (m) to be anticipated on the rowel, completely separated the vowel from the ( m ). If any nasality was anticipated, I failed to notice it. But there were so many other curiosities in the word, that I might have readily overlooked so slight a difference as that between $\left(a a_{2}\right)$. The silence after (!) produced the effect of lengthening the first syllable, although in itself this syllable was extremely short. I regret that I had marked no case like upadhmâniya, where a post-aspirated media comes before a sonant consonant. I can only conjecture by analogy that the effect of the post-aspirate would be merely to check or shorten the preceding consonant, introducing a pause, and that this word might consequently be called (upad!m»áai,"qjiiva). It is well known that $d h$ before a pause becomes (, t ). The latter pait of the word is given on the analogy of what follows. The next sounds shew remarkable effects, and I had the word repcated many times to note them. The Sauscrit letters indicate only (manjoo), all else is generated. The labiality of (m) generated either an ( 11 ) or (o) sound upon the coming (a); (o) being as we know the labialisation of (a), it wonld be most natural, but as Indian organs are not accustomed to any short ( 0,0 )sound, but are used to short (u), it is probable that (י1) was really uttered, although I received it as (u). It was very transient, but unmistakably

## 14. (wh)—continued.

touched. Then came (a) short with the force, and followed, as in the last case, by an (i) anticipated from the य ( J ) in the next syllable. Result so far, (madi), which is probably more correct than (muái). Representing a short vowel, the whole triphthong was short and glided on to the (n), on which weight was laid. Now however ensued an action of the य (J), converted into (i) after a consonant as usual, and this displayed itself by converting ( n ) into ( nj ), as it sounded to me, but (q,.) may have been the sound of course, as a palatal generated by the palatal. By this introduction sufficient time was gained for lengthening the syllable, and then the voice fell rapidly and briefly on the (i), and passed on to a long broad sustained (oo), producing the singular result (brá, mudii nqłióo), as it may perhaps be written.]

## वेदविच छूरो Têdorum-gnarus,

 heros, (vee, davit kjpuu,roo). I think (tkjl) was (tjkj1) meant for (kjkJl), after the Italian model. Mr. Gupta complained of the separation of the words, the च हू for च्छू cansing him to hesitate. There was no real doubling of ( $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{f}}$ ), bnt the first seemed to be a coroual ( t ), and not the dental ( $(\mathrm{t})$, which would have been impossible as the substitute for a palatal. The lengthening of the syllable (vit) by the doubled consonant was very clear.] The quantities were brought out beantifully.निष्धेपु in Nischadhis (nishadueeshu). [The long vowel quite distinctly marked, no glide of (sha) on to (du), the (dнее) given very quictly, but quite distinct from(dee), and with no approach to (shad) нhee).]

## महीपति: terrae-dominus (maнii-

 $\left.\mathrm{p}{ }^{a}, \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$. Observe the visarga at the end distinct. [The effect of (, til) was clearly ( $\mathrm{t} i ⿻ \mathrm{i} \mathrm{i}$ ) or nearly ( +ti h ), but very short and quick, just touched, and hence not so strong as would be implied by writing (, $t i \underline{h}$ ). The medial (u) was quite different from (11h). The first six words that follow are from the oth sloka of Nalus.]
## तये 'वा "सीद्र विदमैंणु ita quo.

 que fuit in Vidurbhis (, ta, [aia vaa sii, ${ }^{\text {a }}$14. (wh)-continued.
vi,darbuceshu). [The dentality of (r) not observel.]
भीमो भोंमपराक्रम: Bhimus ti-menda-ri (buiimoo bнiimıparaakrama]). [The dentality of ( $r$ ) not observed; the (al) distinct.]
धर्माव तू officiorum-gnarus (1, d нarmavi.t). [Sloka 7.]

सुमध्यमा pulchro-medio corpore praedita (suma duiamaa). ['There being no hiss, there is no generation of (Jh) in (duia). It is seen that the difficulty of (, dhu) was got over by taking ( J ) as (i). From sloka 10.]

शूतं सखीन च चentum amicaeque (shataq saklii, naanj kja). [Perhaps (q.) would have been more correct than (nj). Sloka 11. This concludes the observations on Mr. Gupta's pronunciation.]

Returning to English sounds I may notice the following information received from Prof. Haldeman: "About the year 1850, the lower classes of New York developed the form bhoy from boy. It came to Philadelphia, and I beard it as far south as Washington, but there it acquired a yowel, say bzhoy. This sound is rather an enforced than an 'aspirate' $b$, and is due to euergetic speech, like German $p f$ for $p$. In questions between Greek and Sanscrit, $I$ believe that $p$ is older than $p^{\prime} h, p f$, and $f$, and $f$ often newer than $p^{\prime} h$; and $k, k \%, k h, \chi$, have the same relations. It is a curious fact, that in India itself $p^{*} h a l$, fruit, has fallen into fal dialec-ticly-if the sound is not really the labial ph." Query, was this lowerclass New York sound (bns'i), and was it adopted from the Irish (bно'iz) who abound there?

The English language has the following pairs of mutes and sonants ( $\mathrm{p} \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{t} \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{kg}$ ), occasionally but not intentionally passing into (pih bif, th h dur, $k_{1} h g_{14}$ ). It has also the pairs of hisses and buzzes ( $f x$, th chh, s $z$, sh $z h$ ) and, as I think, (wh w, sh s). But the murnurs ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{q}$ ) have at least no acknowledged hiss. Now in Dutch these are acknowledged, thongh not written, as (h, rh) developed by a sanhitu action of a following voiceless letter ( $1114, b$ ), to which 1 draw particular attention, as it is the most

## 14. (wh)-contimued.

marked European correlative of this combined Sanserit action, to which we have very little corresponding in English. In all languages there are many synthetically generated sounds which are not marked in the alphabet. Thus I noticed a generated (z) in Mr. Magnússon's Icelandic ( $517, a b$ ), and a generated ( $\mathrm{lh}, \mathrm{mh}, \mathrm{nh}$ ) after or before mutes (545, d. 546, a). In Sauscrit we have already noticed (1132, a) a generated ( $k h, p h$ ) from I'rof. Whitney, and other generated sounds from Mr. Gupta's pronnnciation. The rules for the conversion of Sanscrit $m, n$, before surd mutes, into visarjaniya (Whitney, ibid. pp. 84, 85), seem to me to speak of this insertion of a gencrated ( $\mathrm{mh}, \mathrm{nh}$ ) as (m-mh-p, n-mh-t) for ( $m$ h h, $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{l}}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ) $=$ ( $\mathrm{m}-\mathrm{mh}, \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{nh}$ ). "It is sufficiently evident," says Prof. Whitney (ibid. p. 86), "that this insertion of a sibilant after a final $n$, before a surd mute, is no proper phonetical process : the combination of the nasal and following non-nasal is perfectly natural and easy, without the aid of a transition sound, nor can any physical explanation be given of the thrusting in between them of a sibilant which only enenmbers the conjunction," and consequently he resorts to an bistorical development, which of course may have been the real process adopted. But it does not follow that the inscrtion may not he perfectly natural. The difficulty arises, not from the passage of a nasal into a non-nasal, but from roice to voicelessress. Now to us such a passage as (tiit) is easy enough, and most of us say simply ( $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{ii}>\mathrm{t}^{\circ}$ ). But it is casily imaginable that the glides must be mixed in some persons' mouths as
 where the change from voicelessness to voice takes place in the position of the roiced letter. In this case such a combination as (felt, liemp, tent, thiqk) would be impossible, or at least disagrecable to his organs, which demand (fil-lh-t, lem-mh-p, ten-1hh-t, thiq-qh-k), or, using the risurjaniya (th), as would be natural in lamruages which had a sign for that, and not for (mh, nh), we should write (follht, lamphp, tenpht, thighhk). Is such a state of things actual or only theoretical? I hear the four English words as (felt', lamp', tent, thiqk*), Mr. Melvilte Bell gives them as (felht, lamhp', teuht', thighk'),

## 14. (wh)-continued.

and says expressly (English Visible Speech for the Million, p. 15): "The abrupt non-rocal articulation of the 'liquids' $l, m, n, n q$, when before nonvocal consonants, is exhibited in the printing of such words as folt, lamp, tent, think, etc. In deliberate pronunciation, the voiceless $l, m$, etc., rcceive an initial trace of rocality from the preceding vowels;" that is, he admits (fEblll 1 lht'), etc., " but if an attempt be made to prolong the 'liquid,' without altering its vernacular effect, the characteristic voicelessness of the latter will be demonstrated to the car. The peeuliarity of 'foreign' pronunciation of these English syllables arises simply from the undue vocality which is given to the $l, m$, etc." I do not know to what particular 'foreign' pronunciation he was alluding, but I do not recognize a predominance of ( Ih ) as English. It is possible that (fel-lhitt), ete., may be said, but I have no more difficulty in saying (felt') than in saying (feet'), that is, I can run the rocality on to the voiceless mute, and then cut it suddenty off, without any interposition of the hiss (lh). A distinct and much more a predominant pronunciation of (lh), etc., is something new to me. But in listening in 1870 to the English public speaking of Keshub Chunder Sen, a Bengalese gentleman, of considerable education, founder of the Brahmo Somaj or Indian theistic church, I was struck by the way in which he conveyed the vocality of his ( $1, m, n$ ) into the following consonant, when it should have been quite voiceless, and then having given a faint indication of the voiced effect. passed un to voicelessness, during that consonant. This was more apparent when the following consonant was a hiss. His since was ( $\sin -\mathrm{L}^{z-s}$ ), his felt was (fel- $\mathrm{d}-\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{t}}$ ), the effect of which to an English ear was to create a confusion between since and sins, felt aud fellerl. Now this was the more remarkable, beealuse of our own habit of calling sins (sinzs), see (547. b) and (1104, $c$ ), so that it would certainly be more English to call since (simnhs) than $(\sin [z s)$. But the point to be noticed here is the visaijaniya or ( l ) effect produced, the real change from voicelessness to voice and conversely, in the same position. We might write (siulhs, $\sin z{ }^{h}$ ) for (siunh-s, $\left.\sin z-s\right)$. The introduction of whisper before or after

## 14. (wh)-continued.

voice is not confined to rowels, but may occur with any roiced consonants, and different ears will recugnise the effect of the same promuciations differently, according to the attention which education or habit bas led them to give to the voiced or voiceless parts respectively. A German says (szizce evo) for sie sehen, and (szii! sziit!) for sich! sieh !, but he only knows and teaches that he says (zizce en, zii! zii!). An Englishman says (briidhzs), but believes he says (briidhz), and if a voiced letter follows he does so. But he never says (thdheei) as a German would, if he could. German is very deficient in correspondences of voiced and roiceless letters. Even if we admit initial and medial ( $p h^{h}$ b, th h $d, k_{1} \mathrm{~g} g$ ), we find only final ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) or at most ( $-\mathrm{bp},-\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t},-\mathrm{gk}$ ). Then to German (f) there is no (v), except in the north of Germany, and even there the ( v ) for (bh) arises so differently that there is no feeling of pairing, and hence (fvii) for (bhii) would be strange. And in those parts of Germany where (bh) is certainly pronounced, ( ph ) is only generated, and not even acknowledged, except by phonologists, in pfan $=(\mathrm{p}-\mathrm{pháu})$, so that (phbhii) could not occur. The Germans have (sh) but no (zh), and ( t , sh) but no ( $\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{zh}$ ). They have ( kh , kjh), but only medial and final, except in the syllable - chen, and some generated ge-'s. Their (gh, gjh) are only medial. They know nothing of ( $\mathrm{lh}, \mathrm{rh}, \mathrm{mh}, \mathrm{nh}$, qh ), and hence there is no tendency to any visarjantaya consonant effect, except in initial (sz-). In English we have certainly, before a panse, (-zs, -dhth) frequently, and (-vf) occasionally, but as (zh) is never final, we have no ( $z h$, sh). The consonantal diphthong in judge, however, often yields (d, zhad, zh sh), which Germans, at best, prononnce ( $t$ shodt.sh), and a very curious effect they produce, making the (od) extremely short. In the case of ( $1, m, n, q$ ) we prolong them indefinitely as vocal, and so, I think, do Germans. with the exception of ( $q$ ), which becomes ( $q k^{*}$ ) very often in Germany.

We are now prepared to consider the very diflicult Ags. $h u, h r, h l, h m, h n$, with the Old Norse $h i$, $h v$, see ( $513, a$ ), (544, a). l'rof. W lituey. alter defining $h$ as ( f ) . see (1132, a'), continues (Ath. V. Pr. p. 66): "Tlius the $h$ 's of $h a$, of $h i$, of $h u$, and those heard before the

## 14. (wh)-continued.

semi-rowels $w$ and $y$ in the English words $u$ chen and hue, for instance, are all different in position, corresponding in each case with the following vowel or semi-vowel. $I I$ is usually intial in a word or syllable, and is governed by the letter which succeeds, and not by that which precedes it." He therefore says, and hears from such American English speakers as do not omit the voiceless part altogether, (ghaa, phii, _huu, lhwen, phiú), and he is apparently so convinced that all English speakers agree with himself and those whom he has both heard and noted, that he says elsewhere (Ormental and Linguistic Studics, p. 251 ) that Prof. Max Müller's "definition of the wh in when, etc., as a simple whispered counterpart of $w$ in wen, instead of a $w$ with a prefixed aspiration, is, we think, clearly false." When Prof. Max Müller, as a German, appealed to the opinions of Mr. M. Bell and myself as English phonologists who agreed with him, l'rof. Whitney replied (ibid. p. 271): "The true phonetic value of the $w h$, as is well known to all who have studied English phonolngy, is greatly contruverted; we happen to have a strong conviction on one side, which we take every convenient opportunity of expressing. without intending disrespect to those who differ from us." And then, alluding to me, he says. "We feel less scruple about disagreeing with him as to this particular point. inasmuch as he (and Bell as well) has what we cannot but regard as a special weakness in respect to labial mudifications of vowels and consonants. With one who can hold the initial consonant sound of divell, for example, to be not a $w$ with $d$ prefixed, but a lahially modified $d$, we should not expeet to agree in an analysis of the $w h$ sound." On (dw) see ( $1115^{\circ}, b$ ), where the last sentence was quoted without its context. The eases of (wh, $\mathrm{d} x$ ) are not quite parallel. but this is of small importance. Prof. Whitney's wh $=m y$ ( (lww) $=m y$ (wh.w). Now, of course, Prof. Whitney is an incontrovertible authority as to the wy in which he pronounces, and wishes others to pronounce, the inital sonnds of his own name, but that he should find it necessary to "take every convenient opportunity of expressmy " his own "strong conviction" respecting the correctness of his analysis, shews me that he must have met with many who dis-

## 14. (wh)-continued.

puted it. Possibly he is often called (Wi-tni), as he certainly would be generally in London, and that must be as annoying as for Simith to be called (Zmis), as he would certainly be in France. That, however, ( 1 hwiil) $=$ (whwiil) is an acknowledged theoretical American pronunciation, the uncorroborated assertion of Prof. Whitney would be sufficient to establish. And it is not uncorroborated.

Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of Chickies, Columbia, Penusylvania, U.S., says (Analytic Orthography, p.101): "Latin V has a surd aspirate in English wh, which is always followed by V way, as in when $=$ (whwen), which is not (when), as some suppose, nor is it hwen, as hden is not then. Unfortunately, this sound is departing. We heard wig for whig, the first time in July, 1848, and not unfrequently since. When this confusion is established between when wen; where were; which witch; whet wet; whey way; wheel weal; the language will have ceased to be a refined one. The sound probably belongs to Welsh, prorincial Danish, and ancient Greek." And in a note received while this was being prepared for press he observes: "If when is not my wh-w-e-n but wh-e-n, it approaches fen, as wh-i-ch approaches fitch," [precisely, and so we get Aberdeen (f) for initial (wh), and have got our received final (f) in langh dwarf.] "I think those who say $w-e-n$ drop wh and do not drop the aspirate merely. Similarly if hue is nut (Jh-J-u) but ( $\mathrm{Jh}-\mathrm{u}$ ), then it approaches ( sh -u). Query, are not Lancashire hoo and Leeds shoo, both meaning she, both derived from heó ags., the one through (rheóo, нhиo, нhu', uhuu) regular dialectal changes, and the other through ( нheóo нhióo Jhóo shóv)? The peculiar dialectal promuciations will be discussed hereafter. The usual theory gives hoo to heó, and she, shoo to seó. But she could also conme from her through (nheóo uhéoo shé she). The vowel changes will be justitied hereafter. The form zho occurs in Orrmin (488, d), and ghe, ge in Genesis and Exodus (467, cid).

Prof. Ilaldeman adds: "I have known an intelligent lecturer on grammar to assert that in when, ete., the $h$ precedes the $w$-meaning a true $h$. I then proposed that he should set his mouth for the initial of hen. 'Now

## 14. (wh)-continued.

say when.' Of course he failed, and admitted the labial nature of the initial. I have a cognate experiment upon about the only point where we do not agree. I say, 'Set the mouth for the initial of ooze, let it stand while you are imagining the syllab now, but relax at its final element and let the lips drop into - $w$. The result is a closer sound than that of ooze or full.' 'Set the mouth for the vowel of eel or ill, then imagine the organs relaxed upon the last element of eye or boy, when a closure of the orgaus will be felt.' I admit your glide, but a glide that proceeds to a consonant, and might proceed from oo to $b$. The glide is present in boa and chaos, but it cannot turn them into monosyllabs." These last remarks relate to my theory of diphthongs, and the experiment is to shew that the last element is consonantal. So it is, in the pronunciation of several English persons, but that is not sufficient for a general theory of diphthongs. The last examples, boa and chaos, are met by my slur - theory.

Prof. F. A. March, of Easton, Pennsylvania, U.S., in his private letter of 2. March, 1872,-already cited (1092, c), -has most obligingly entered into so much detail that 1 think it will be interesting and useful to quote his remarks at length. He says: "You call my $w h$ ( $\mathrm{wh}+\mathrm{w}$ ). I suppose you call my $h$ (wh) because I have set my organs for (w) when I issue it. I suspect something wrong here, and fear that I have misled you as to the sound. When I say he, I set the organs for $e$ (ii) and issue surd breath; to say $h a, 1$ set for $a$ (aa) and issue surd breath, and so for other combinations" [That is, he says ("ii, "aa) initially, or (lhii, [haa) conjointly.] "No separate characters are used to indicate these "settings.'" [Hinc illae lacrymae !] "I do not then see why hw is not the proper notation tor my wh." [If $h$ always indicated (b), then $h w$ would mdicate $(\mathrm{l} w \mathrm{w})=(\mathrm{whw})$, which is Prof. March's wh,-but not mine.] "When 1 compare hoo and hwen= when, it seems to me that the initial sud sound before the lip movement in $h w$ is identical." [If (w) differ from (u), as I behere, then (hinw) aiffers from (hu), the first giving (wh-w), the second ('4u-u).] "I have this moment stopped writing, and tried the experiment of saying who eat, pronounciug it as one word with
14. (wh)-continued.
the accent on eat, and the $o=00$ with slight sonancy. I find a person of good ear and some skilled attention takes it for wheat, and thinks it correctiy uttered, though often repeated." [This depends upon habit. Now there are very various ways of uttering these words, and I feel sure that my who eat (mujiit), even when allowed to degenerate into mere (huíit) is not at all like Prof. March's wheat $=$ (whwit), but of course his (fhuiit) would differ from (whwiit) only as (uii) from (wii), and the existence of this difference for at least 300 years, since the time of Sir Thos. Smith (185, a), has been a matter of dispute in England.] "This seems to me to indicate that in our pronunciation the initial sound is $h$ as in hoo, and that the following sound is very like your diphthongal oo" [that is, (u) forming a diphthong with a following vowel which has the chief stress. Here I omit a passage on etymology, subsequently referred to.] "I cannot but think that phonetically, as certainly etymologically, Ang.-Sax. and New England $h w^{\prime}$ s are labialised $h$ 's, standing parallel with Lat. qu." [Here Prof. March actually adopts as an argument an idea of my own, that $q u=$ ( $\mathrm{k} w)$ and not ( kw ), which Prof. Whitney adduced as a reason for disagreeing with me !] "I think it likely that these remarks are wholly needless; but I find that I $c a_{n}$ issue breath through organs set for $w$, in such a way that it will have from the first a plain labial modification, so that I should call it wh. The sound I do make for $h w$ is not that, I think; but, as I have tried to expound it, like h. Perhaps, I do not really set my organs for your $w$."

Another Ámerican phonetic authority propounds a slight difference. Mr. Goodwin (op. cit. p. 10) says: "As to $w h$, it has generally been maintained by modern English grammarians that it is pronounced hw (i.e. hoo), as it was written by the Anglo-Saxons. But we doubt not that if : man will observe carefully for himself how, and with wha difference, he prononnces wit and whit, the will be satisfied that the $h$ is really pronounced neither before nor after the $w$, but in the same sort of constant combination with it, which characterizes any other aspirate as connected with its lene. Whether the $h$, therefore, should be printed before or after the $w$, is a matter of indifference,

## 14. (wh)-continued.

except so far as consistency in the notation of a given alphabet is concerned. $W^{\circ} \%$ is certainly the most consistent with the rest of the English alphabet." This scems to farour (whit) rather than (jlwit).

It seems to me that the difficulty has arisen from want of discriminating symbols. Now that it is quite possible to distinguish (nuít, нhnít, yhuíit, bhuit, whiit, nwhiit = mhwit, whwiit $=$ [hwiit, wiit), we may inquire in any particular case what is said. It is very probable, most probable, that in a case where accurate attention has been little paid, and where even symbolisation failed, great diversities exist, both traditionally and educationally, and that theorists should differ. Now it is certainly curious that three such competent American observers as Professors Whitney, Haldeman, and March, should practically agree in (wh-wiit) $=$ ( ${ }^{\text {h wiit }}$ ); and that two practised English observers like Mr. Melville Bell and myself should agree in (whiit). I have myself heard (wh-w) from Americans, and know that it differs from my own (wh-). Our Scotch friends called quhat ( $\mathrm{k} u \mathrm{hat}$ ), not (khwat), and in Aberdeen we have (fat), or perhaps (phat), see (188, b. 580, c). Now this last (fat) is as easy to say as (fæet), whick no one would think of calling (fvert), except perhaps in the Somersetshire district, where this may be the real sound that generated (vaet), see ( $1104, b$ ). But such combinations as (fv-, thdh-, sz.-, shzh-) are as un-English as (lhl-, mhm-), etc., and hence 1 think that the analogy of our language is in favour of (whiit, shu) $=$ wheat, hew. It is true, I call the last word (Jhiiu), which certainly approaches (shsuu), but may be au individuality, but the word is not common; and when it is used, the sound flutters between (Jun) and (niún). And similarly for human, humour, ete.

What ought we to say is another question. Shonld the Anglo-Saxon hw lead us to (wh-w-) in all cases? I'rof. March, who is a potent authority in Anglo Saxon, says, in passage omitted on ( $1143, b^{\prime}$ ), from the letter there cited: "Is it not true that this initial $h$ is a weakening of a guttural aspirate ch, which again is a shifting from a mute $k$, and that the labial $v, w, u$ is a parasitic utterance, wheh has here and there attached itself to the true root letter? Sansk. ka-, Lith. ka-, Slav.

## 14. (wh)-continued.

Ko-, Lat. quo-, Goth. Ivv, A. Sax. hwo, Engl. who." We enter now on a great question, the discussion of which would lead us very far, namely on "parasitic utterances," where a new sound intrudes itself. This new sound in the case of vowels is generally ( $i, u$ ), which shews itself often by a mere palatalisation or labialisation of the preceding consonant, and sometimes ousts the consonant altogether, compare Lat. homo, Ital. old huomo, new uomo. Sometimes the intruder is (a) before ( i , u), which through (ai, au) sometimes pass to distinetly different vowels, as (e, o), and sometimes dropping the old original vowels altoyether, yield up their lives to the intruder, as in Yorkshire (aa) for 1 , and (aas) for house. ags. hus. All of this will natmrally present itself later on, § 2, No. 6 , iv. It would be too far to go to Sanscrit kaor Latin quo- as an authority for the pronunciation of English who. It is enough to go to ags. hcí, and observe that what on this theory we must regard as an intrusive parasitic $v$ has in this ease quite absorbed the $c$. If ags. was (whwaa), English is (huu) or (fhuu), or rather both.

Let us rather observe what has happened in old spellings, and we find $h w$ of the xirth and xirith centuries becoming wh in the xis th, which may be due to a change from (whw-) to (wh-), or may simply be due to a revision of orthography, the sound remaining unchanged. In the latter case the $h$ was placed after to shew that the sound was one, not two, precisely as in the case of $t h$, sch. But we also find at a very early date simple $w$, continually in Robert of Gloucester, sometimes in Layamon. The old $h l, h r, h n$, sank to $l, r, n$ very rapidly. I see no means of determining whether the sounds were originally (khw, khs, khl, khr, khm, khn)
 shs, lhl, rhr, mhm, nhm) or (wh, sh lh, rh, mh, wh). Plasible arguments and analogies will apply to all of them. The modern (w, J, l, r, m, n) could descend from any one of them. But on the whole I am most tempted to believe that (wh, Jh, lh, rh, mh, nh) existed at so very early a time, that I feel unable to go higher. As a matter of, say, habit, l use (wh, Jh, l, r, m, n) at present. If asked what is the sound of $w h$ in wheat, I reply, that $I$ say (wh), others say (whw), and by far the

## 14. (wh)-contimued.

greater number of educated people in London say (w). These speakers are mutually intelligible to each other. Perhaps the (wh) and (whw) people may mark the (w), and think that " $h$ is dropped." Perhaps the (w) may think the (wh) and (whw) folk have an odd northern pronunciation, but generally they will not notice the matter. The (wh) and (whw) people might converse together for hours without finding out that there was any difference between their habits. How many Englishmen, or even Germans, know that Germans habitually eall sieh (szii) and not (zii)? IIow many Englishmen know that they habitually call emphatic is (izs) and not (iz) before a pause? Who is to blame whom? In such a matter, at least, we must own that "Whatever is, is right"(whate:vari ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{zs}$, izra' $i \cdot \mathrm{t}$ ), as I repeat the words.
In these very excursive remarks the subject of aspiration is far from being exhausted, but as respects $w h$ itself, it has been considered initially only. It constantly occurs finally in older English, as a form of 3 , perhaps at one time for (kh), or (kwh), of which it is an easier form, the back of the tongue being not quite so high, and hence the frieation much less harsh, in (wh). Now this (wh) falls into (u), or drops away entirely, or beeomes (f). Does not this look like (-kwh, -wh, -ph, -f) on the one hand, and ( $-\mathrm{k} v \mathrm{~h}$, -wh, -w, -u) on the other? I do not see a place for $(-w w h)=(-w / h)$, or $w$ with visar janiya. This observation points to the pure hiss (wh) in all cases, rather than the mixed (whw-) in one case, and the pure ( $-w h$ ) in the other. But these are points for the older pronunciations. 'To gather present usage, we shall have to wateh speakers very carefully.
(i). Sce No. 3, (ii), and No. 6, (i).
(p). The lips shut firmly, and the glottis elosed airtight. If the gloitis is in the voice position, the voice will sound producing (b), see (1103, a). In this ease, where ( p ) is final, the effect is described (1111, $d^{\prime}$ ).
( $w h i p$ ). The glide ( $w h<i$ ) is similar in its nature to the glide ( $s<i$ ), mee $(1106, a)$. The glide $(i<p)$ is similar

## 14. (whip)-continued.

to the glide ( $i>\mathrm{k}$ ), ibid. And the ( p ) glides off into pure flatus ('h) before a pause. Thus (whip) $=($ wh $<i>\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{l})$ before a pause.

With regard to the length of the glide ( $i>p$ ) and such like, the following remarks of Mr. Sweet are very important (Philolog. Trans. 1873-4, p. 110): "In Danish all final consonants are short without exception. In English their quantity varies, the general rule being that they are long after a short, short after a long vorel ; tell (tell), bin (binn), tale (teil), been (biin). Compare English farewell (feeahwe'll) with Danish farvel (fatve ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{l}$ ). Liquids and nasals coming before another consonant follow the same laws in both languages: they are long before voice, short before breath eonsonants: (this was first noticed in Danish by E. Jessen; see his Dansk Sproglere, p. 21. He has also noticed (in the T. f. Ph. ii.) the length of the E. final voice stops, treated of below, which I first discovered from comparing the E. and Norse sounds:) hem (lham), hammre (hammta), vel (vel), valdig (velldigh), valte (velta); bill (bill), build (bilhd), built (hilt)." [It is possible that the different lengths of (11, 1) in such words as (billd, bilt) led Mr. Bell to his distinction (bild, bilht), see (1141,a).] "The short final stops in Danish and Norwegian are important as bringing out very elearly a peeuliar feature of English pronunciation, whieh has not litherto been noticed. This is our tendency to lengthen the final stops. It is seen most clearly in the vocal stops. Compare E. egg (Egg) with Norw. agg (eg). That the voiceless final stops are also long in E. is apparent from a comparison of Danish kat, hat, with E. cat, hat (krett, Hætt). In short we may say that short accented monosyllables do not exist in English. Either the rowel or the consonant must be long (tell, teil). In the ordinary London pronunciation, the quantity of originally short vowels seems to be perfectly indifferent, the only limitation being that a short vowel and a short consonant must not come together. No Englishman ever says (tel). He must either lengthen the consonant (tell), or else the vowel, in which ease the congonant becomes short (teel). I have often heard the latter from people of every rank, but chictly among the vulgar,"

## 14. (whip)-continued.

I wish to direct close attention to this original and aente observation. But the subject is, I think, far from exhausted. Mr. Sweet has not spoken of the glide between the rowel and the consonant. The very short (tel) of which be speaks would, to an Englishman, sound like an 'unfinished' (tell), and be most safely written (tel!), and so pronounced would, if (EE) occurred in our language, give the effect of a long rowel, as in (teel), which we should hare to write (teel!). If we are speaking of the relative lengths of the parts of syllables, we can only properly indicate them by superimposed mumbers, as already siggested ( $1131, d$ ). In

$$
1215 \quad 1211 \quad 1512
$$

$(\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{E}>\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{t}<\mathrm{E}>\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{t}<\mathrm{E}>\mathrm{l}$ ) we have perhaps the relations ronghly indicated by (tell) or (te'l), (tel!) and (teel). Mr. Bell marks Seoteh ell $=\left(E^{\prime} l\right)$, did

$$
3: 15
$$

he mean ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}>\mathrm{l}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}>\mathrm{l}$ )? For practical purposes I should prefer writing (tell, tel, teel), and (tell, tel!, teel:) for theoretical investigation, when the exactuess of numbers is not necessary.
15. LAMP, Bell's (læmhp), my (læmp).
(1). One of the divided consonants. The tip of the tongue in the (d)-position, but the sides frce; whereas in ( $r$ ) the sides are fixed in the (d)-position, but the tip is free to trill. Hence (d) is, so to speak, an attempt to pronounce ( 1 ) and ( r ) together, resulting in a complete stop, as ( 1 ) stops the central and ( $r$ ) the side passages. If (lh), or flatus through the (l)-position, nceurred either conseionsly or unconsciously in $h l$ in ags. ( $1141, d^{\prime}$ ), it is quite lost now. Eren if Mr. Bell is right in supposing (lh) to he generated now ( $1141, a$ ), it must be touched very lightly indeed. The Welsh ll (hhh) differs from (lh), see ( $756, b c$ ). In ( $756, d^{\prime}$ ) it is wrongly said that (lhh) oceurs in Manx, whereas it is only the buzz of (lhhi) or (/hh) which there occurs. Frenchmen do not admit that (lh) occurs in table, as stated in ( $756, c$ ), but (lh) oceurs both direetly as $h$, and indireetly before ( t ) in Ieelandio (544, a. $545, d)$.
To the curious relation (d)-position

## 15. (1)-continued.

$=(1)$-position $+(r)$-position, is to be attributed the frequent confusions among (d, l, r). My own name, Ellis, has been frequently confused both with Harris and Herries. The Chinese, Japanese, as well as the Ancient Egyptians, and probably many other nations, confuse ( l ) and (r) systematically. In fact they scem not to know either ( 1 ) or (r), but to produce some intermediate sound, written ( ${ }^{1} \mathrm{r}$ ) and explained on $(1133, a)$. The effect was that of a very short (l) or 'blurred' (r), followed by a distinet ( r ). When the ( 1 ) is distinet and (r) blurred, ( 1 r ) will be the proper form. Generally the combination (lr) or ( L lr ) is sufficient. The sounds could not be simultancous, and the order appears to be ( lr ) not ( rl ). Both huwever are possible, and the symbols ( $\mathrm{Ir},{ }^{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{lr}, \mathrm{rl}, \mathrm{rl}, \mathrm{r}^{\mathrm{l}}$ ) must be selected accordingly. The combination ( lr ) necessarily recalls the transeription lri, lrit for Sanserit ल्ट ब form are the letter $l$ ल, with the combining form of the rowels 記 张, usually written $r i, r i$. Now these last may have been (', ${ }^{\prime},{ }^{\prime},{ }^{r}, r$ ) a short and long trilled voice, which is quite rocal. That Pânini should place them amiong the dentals, and the commentator on the Ath. V. Pr. (Whituey's edition, p. 22) among the gutturals or jihivûmûliya, "formed at the base of the tongue," Prof. Whitney attributes to a diversity of pronunciation, as a dental ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) and uvular ( $r$ ), while he considers the elassification of $l r i, l r i t$, in the same category as due to its oceurring solely in the root kilrip, which begins with a guttural. The liik Pr. makes the same classification ; the Vâj. Pr. omits $l r i, ~ l r^{i}$, from the list. Now I think that the sign shews merely that लृ lri bears the same relation to ल $l$ as Fट्ट $r i$ does to T $r$. All will in that case depend on the $r i$ vowel. This the Ath. V. Pr. commentator (Whitney, p. 32) describes as "an $r$ combined with a half-measure or watcat in the middle of the vowelmeasure in the ri-rowel, just as a nail is with the finger; like a pearl on a string, some say; like a worm in grass, say others." Now refleeting on the Polish szez, in which a contimued (sh) is interrupted for a moment by throwing the tip of the tongne on to the hard palate and instantly withdrawing it, I

## Chap. XI. § 1. Kei-words to english speech-sounds,

## 15. (1)-continued.

interpret this as a continued (a) or (a), interrupted for a moment by two or three beats of a trill, produced by trilling the point of the tongue, which is tolerably free for ( $\partial$ ), so that we have nearly (aro), but by no means quite so, for first we have no proper glides $(a>\mathrm{r}<a)$, the true $r$-position not having been assumed, and secondly there is a feeling of a continued vowelsound made tremolo in the middle, as has become the fashion in singing, and, consequently, thirdly the trill would differ from, at least, the theoretical (. $\mathbf{r}$ ), as the sound produced by a free-reed, or anehe libre, as in an harmonium, from the sound produced by a strikingreed, as in the clarinet. It is remarkable that it acts to change ( $n$ ) into ( x ), " within the limits of the same word" (Whitney, ibid. p. 174), which would confirm this riew, making (ora) in fact retracted in comparison with (r). There seems to have been a difficulty with the Indians as well as the English in pronouncing ( $r$ ) trilled before any other consouant. I have heard German kirche givell as kiriche. This is the ease of (. r ) before a spirant, where the Indians seem to have required a more sensible insertion of a svarabhakti, 'fraction or fragment of a vowel' (Whitney, ibid. p. 67), in short of Mr. Bell's voice glide ("h), than before other consonants. The Irish (wa rok) is well known. Probably the process of speech changed Sanscrit (or) into (ora) and then into (ra) only. The 'guttural' classification of the (ara) may merely indicate the retraction of the root of the tongue consequent on its vowel instead of its dental character. The lri may have beeu merely (ala), a continued ( $\partial$ ) interrupted in the middle by a nou-dental (1) or approximation to it, and probably with no sound of ( r ) in it at all. These sounds are perhaps liest written ( $\mathrm{r}_{2}, \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ), as the consonaut part became predominant.

Mr. M. O. Mookerjey (see 1102, $b$, called $r i, r i z(u r i, u r i i)$, with a very distinct (11), but he said that lri, lrii were simple (li, lii). Both of these are apparently modernisms. But the (uri) at least shews that the sound consisted of some vowel, interrupted in what was perceptibly the middle of its duration by the beats of a trill. Mr. Gupta differerl in this respect, (1136, $d^{\prime}$. 1138, $b^{\prime}$ ).

## 15. (æ).

(æ). This rowel, as I pronounce it, is very thin, and foreigners have told me that I make no distinction between man and men (mæn, men), or (mæn, men) accordiug to Mr. Bell. The position of the tongue appears to be identical for (e) and (is), so that all Germans, French, and Italians hear (ie) as their open $\ddot{a}$, ê, e. But the back parts of the mouth and pharynx appear to be widened, and the quality thus approaches to (a), which it has replaced. Many persons, however, seem to me to use (ah), even now, for (a). The true thin English sound ocen's in Hungarian, written $e$ in accented syllables, but I observed that on removing the stress, it seemed to fall into ( E ). Land (op, cit. p. 16) says that the openest Dutch $e$ sometimes approaches (a) in sound, and in the mouths of some speakers beeomes quite the English (x) in man, bad. He also says that Donders' ae (op. eit. p. 11), heard in Dutel vet, gebed = law, prayer, which is quite lifferent from his $t^{a}$ heard in bed, is this (e). In the Dutch of the Cape of Good Hope, (æ) appears to be the general pronunciation of open $e$. For the Somersetshire use, see $(67, a)$, and for Welsh $(67, c .61, d)$. Mr. Nicel tells me that some English frieuds in Monmouthshive call fach (vekh, vekh) rather than (veekh), but eall the first letter of the Welsh alphabet (aii), not (éei). With regard to the presumed use of (ex) in Copenhageu, Mr. Sweet (Philol. Trans. 1873-4, p. 105) makes it (a) or "mid back wide forward," or "outer," as I have called it on $(1107, e)$, for he says: "This vowel has a very thin sound, almost as in E. hat, the tongue being considerably advanced in the mouth, but without the front being raised, so that it is distinct from the mid-mixed (ah): mane (maana) ; mand (m, a; n ); Kat ( $\mathrm{k} 1 \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{at}$ )," where I have duly marked the ( $a$, ' $n$ ) and changed his ( kH ) into ( $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{h}$ ). Really to distinguish ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{ah}, \mathfrak{x}$ ) beeomes very difficult, and few ears are to be trusted. Signor Pagliardini makes the French $a$ rather (a) or (ah) than (a), the order of his vowels being, pea, paid, pair, pat, putte Fr ., part, (purr ?), paw, polygon, pole, pool, punir Fr. These slight differentiations of sound, however. are important in the history of the transition from (a) to (ie), in Elygland for the short rowel, and in Ireland for the long. I heard (piex par) only the

## 15. ( $(x)$-continued.

other day from an Irish labourer. In England, however, the long vowel has gone much further, even to (ee'j) or (éi). In a certain class of words there is even now great diversity of use (68d). Fulton and Knight (Dictionary, Loulon, 1843) say: " A sounds (ai) before $r \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{~lm}, l f$, and liee, as in bar car, barh garb, bard pard, lark park, harl (؟) snarl, arm farm, barn darn, carp harp, art dart, barge large, carve starve, farce parse, march parch; balm calm palm psalm, calf half, calre halve. This sound is contracted into (a) before $f f, f t, s s, s k, s p, s t$, (th) and nce, as in: chaff staff, grait shaft, lass pass, ask bask, asp clasp, cast fast, hath lath path wrath, chance dance." Now in London I constantly hear (aa) in all these words from ciducated speakers, the $r$ in $a r$ being entirely dropped. On the other hand, I have heard ( $x$ ) in every one of the words also, and then, in the case of $a r$. either ( $e^{\prime}$ ) or ( $\left(\mathrm{r}_{0}\right.$ ) was said, the vowel being short. I have also heard (a) short in every one, ( $a$ ', ar.) being used. Again, in those words which have no $r$, I frequently hear (ææ), and more frequently (ah), both short and long, especially from ladies, and those who do not like broad sounds. Apparently this dread arises from the fear that if they said (aask, laaf), they would be accused of the vulgarity of inserting an $r$, and when arsk, larf, are written, they "lonk so very vulgar." Yet these speakers frequently drop the ( $k$ ) and say (ahst) for (aaslit). The tendency seems to be towards (baa. paak, baahm, saahm, нааhf, tshæf, stef, bahth lahth, raath, tshams dens), but the words vary so much from month to month. that amy pronunciation would do, and short (a) would probahly hit a mean to which no one would object. In a performance of Fing John, I heard Mrs. Charles Kean speak of " (kxef) skin," with great emphasis, and Mr. Alfred Wigan immediately repeated it as " (kaaf) skin," with equal distinctness. Both were (I am sorry to use the past tense, though both are living off the stage) distinguished actors. Mr. Bell hears (a, ) in part, but I do not know ( 11 ) as a southern English sound.
(m). The lips are closed as for (h), but the uvula is detached from the

## 15. (m)-continued.

pharynx and there is perfoct nasal resonance ( $\left.1096, d^{\prime} .1123, d\right)$. As there is a perfectly open passage for the voice, there is no condensed air in the mouth. The hum of ('mn) is well known, and it is instructive to $\operatorname{sing}$ upon ( $m, n, q$ ), with the month first elosed thronghout, and then open for $(n, q)$. It will be found that the opening of the mouth makes no difference, and that the three sounds searcely differ when the glides from and to vowels are omitted. When I had a phonetic printing office, the letters ( $m, n, q$ ) bad to be frequently asked for, and such difficulty was found in distinguishing them when the same vowel was used for each, as (em. en, eq), that it became necessary to alter the vowels and call the letters (æm, en, iq), after which no trouble was experienced. Compare the modern Indian confusion of ( $n, n$ ), mentioned in (1096, $e^{\prime}$ ).

As to the use of ( m ) or ( mh ) or ( $\mathrm{m}-\mathrm{mh}$ ) before ( $p$ ) see ( $1141, a$ ). The case is different when the following mute belongs to another organ. $-m / 2$ does not occur, but $-m t$ is frequent, as in attempt, and the tendency is to cut off the roice and close the nasal passage, before the lips are opened, so that (mp) or ( mph ) is generated. As to the length of the ( m ) in this case, see ( $1145, b c^{\prime}$ ) It is I think usually short. When $m b$ is written, as in lamb, the (b) is not heard, but ( m ) is long, as (lemm, le'm). Possibly at one time the nasality may have ceased before the voice, and this real (lamb) may have been said, but I hare not notieed such as a present usage. Compare ( 1 lag ) on ( $1124, l^{\prime}$ ). There is no tendency to develope an epenthetic (b) medially, compare limner, limber, longer $=(1 i \cdot \mathrm{ma}$, li-mbr, lo $\mathrm{g} \mathrm{g} x$ ). But betreen ( m ) and (r) beth French and Spanish introduce (b), compare Latin numerus, French and Spanislı nombre. But in English dialects there is much tendeney to omit any such (b), as Scotch nummer, and dialectal timmer, chammer, for timber, ehamber.

Initial (m) is always short, except rhetorically, expressing doubt, but final (m), after even a buzz, becomes syllabic, as schism, rhythm=(si'z'm, ri$\cdot{ }^{\prime}$ th'm). After $l$ it is not syllabic, as $l$ is either very short as in elm = (elm.), often vulgarly ( $e \cdot l$ 'm, $\mathrm{e} \cdot \mathrm{l} \mathrm{m}$ ), or $l$ quite disappears, as in alms $=$ (aamzs). After $r$,

## 15. (m)-contimued.

when untrilled, and therefore purely roiced, $m$ is not syllabic, and may be quite short, as in warm $=$ (wasm) or (wa'hm, war ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{m}$ ). But when $r$ is trilled, we frequently hoar the syllabie m , as (war'm). 'This, however, is not a received sound.

## (p). See No. 14, (p).

(læmp). The voice is set on with (1), which should be (.1), not (1) or ( h 1 l ). The murmur of ( 1 ) is very brief. The glide $(\mathrm{l}<\boldsymbol{x})$ is almost quite the same as $(\mathrm{d}<\mathfrak{x})$, and the glide ( $(\gg \mathrm{m}$ ) almost the same as ( $\mathfrak{r}>\mathrm{b}$ ), but must be slightly changed by the dropping forward of the uvula at its termination. The lips should close at the same instant as the uvula falls, so that no (x.) or (æ.s) should be heard. Then, as I think, the murnur (m) is continued for a short time, till both voice and nasality are cut off and (p) results, which, before a pause, is as usual made audible by flatus, thus (, $\mathrm{l}<$ æ $>\mathrm{m}-\mathrm{p}^{6}$ ). Mr. Bell, however, cuts off the voice with the elosing of the lips and dropping of the uvula, allowing oceasionally a trace of voice after closing the lips, and hence has generally (, $\left.1<x>m h-p^{\prime}\right)$ and occasionally (. $\left.1<x>m!-m h-p^{\prime}\right)$. See $\left(1140, d^{\prime}\right)$. In all cases ( $p$ ), having the position of ( m ), would be inaudible after ( m ), without some following flatus or voice.
16. ONIONS, Bcll's(antenz), my ( $ə \cdot \mathrm{n} \cdot \mathrm{m} n \mathrm{zs}$ ).
( $\mathfrak{a}$, ) . See No. 1, ( $\mathfrak{a}$, a).
(n). See No. 1, (n).
(J). This bears the same relation to (i) as (w) does to (u). The position for (i) is so much contracted that clear resonance hecomes no longer possible, and the buzz is produced. German writers pair (kjh, J), that is, they confuse (gjh, 〕) together. But the buzz of (gjh) is, to an Englishman's ears, much harsher than for his (J). Lepsius (Standard Alphabet, 2nd ed. 1863, p. 73) says: "It is to be observed that (gjh)," which he defines as the roiced form of $c h$ in mileh $=$ (milkjh), "and the semivowel (J) are fo near each other that ( kjh ) will hardly appear in any language as a

## 16. (3)-continued.

distinct sound by the side of $\langle J\rangle$." But both of them really seem to me to exist in German. At least in Saxony, general, könige, berge, sounded to my ear as (ajheneraal, kə nigjhe, bergjhu); and I often heard (senerae $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{k} \not$ д niss, berse), especially the last, ridiculed by Dresdeners. The sounds were therefore distinguished. Brücke (Grundzüge, p. 44) distinguishes palatal $\mathrm{k}=(\mathrm{kj})$ and velar $\mathrm{k}=(\mathrm{k})$, and Arabic kaf $\ddot{3}$ $=(\mathrm{K})$, with their sonants $(\mathrm{gj}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{G})$. Then, proceeding to the corresponding lisses, he has (kjh), "as in Recht and Licht" (ibit. p. 48), (kh), "as Wache, Woche, Wacht," where I may notice that the ( kh ) frequently becomes ( $k w h$ ) after ( n ) in German, and ( kh ), which he believes is the $\chi$ of the modern Grecks, before $\alpha, o, o v, \omega$. From what he says (ibid. p. 49), I am inclined to think that he confuses (rh) with (krh). Then he adds: "Allowing the voice to sound, we come to Jot, the I consona of the Germans," so that he makes German $J=$ (gjh). Similarly he finds the voiced (kh), or (gh), in Platt-Deutsch laige $=($ laeh $\cdot \mathrm{ghe})$; it is quite common in Saxon, as in lage $=($ laa $\cdot \mathrm{gh} \mathrm{c})$. Finally, he makes (Gh), the modern Greek $\gamma$, before $a, o, \omega$. Then (ibid. p. 70) he says, referring to the English sounds: "Produce (i) and narrow still further the space between the tongue and palate where it is already narrowest, you will obtain a Jot, because you will have reached the position of $(\mathrm{gjh})$. The vowel (i) does not become lost by so doing ; we really hear both the vowel (i) and the consonant Jot at the same time." This seems to me an impossibility. "The most suitable example is the English y, when consonantal. When an (i) follows, as in year, it is exactly the same as the German $I$ consona; but when another vowel follows, a light sound of (i) is heard before it, in educated pronunciation, which arises from raising the laryns, and consequently introducing the condition for (1)." Now I know that Englishmen in Saxony had the greatest diffenlty in learning to say (kjh, gjh), which could bardly have been the ease if they were their own ( $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{J}$ ). The antecedent (i) in yout, yertst, yacht, which he would of course call ( 1 igjhuu, igjhest, (iJa, $\mathrm{t}^{\text {t }}$ ), remind me of l'rof, Mareh's (七uw), sec (1092,

## 16. (J)-contimued.

$c^{\prime}$ ). Brücke's identification of English $y$ - with ( igjh-) is on a par with his identification of English $w$ - with (Luhh-), where, however, be says: "the rowel (u) and the consonant (bh) are really sounded at the same time," which is incorrect. But an attempt to pronounce (u*bh) will generate (w), and so an attempt to pronounce (i*gjh) might generate ( J ), but 1 think this attempt would not be quite so successful. I attribute this error to Brücke's Low Saxon habits of speech, to which real (gjh) is unknown, so that he imagines (s) to be the buzz of (kjh), with which he is acquainted practically. Merkel, lowerer, a Middle Saxon, had no business to be astonished (Phys. d. mensch. Spr. p. 178) that Lepsius could find no hiss to ( J ), and had distinguished ( J , gjli). In Sarony I have not unfrequently heard ja called (Jhaa), where the speaker would have been posed had he been told to begin the word with eh in ich, because he would not have known how to arrange his organs, and would probably at least have said (kjhiáa), thinking of ehia. Again (Jaa) is the received and more usual pronumeiation of $j a$, though great varieties are heard in a word which often sinks into an interjection. But to be told to begin with a "soft g"" would sorely try a Saxon's phonetic intelligence. I found in Saxony very distinet differences (kh gh, kjh gjh, Jlı J). Merkel calls (kjh) g molle, and (gjh) $=(\mathrm{J})$ roiced $g$ molle (ibid. p. 183). Merkel allows of a modification of $g$ molle when it comes from ( y ) instead of (1). In fact, we may have $(J v)=(w \mathrm{j})$, the consonant formed from $(y)$, similar to (J) from (i) and (w) from (u). And we have similarly (kuh, kujh, gukh, gujh). The hiss of the English (J) is heard only in a few words, as IIugh, hew, human (see 1144, e).

All these German confusions of (kjh, gjh) with ( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{s}$ ) depend upon the prior confusion of ( $\mathrm{kj}, \mathrm{gj}$ ) with ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{l})$, and receive their proper explanation so soon as these consonants are admitted; for which we are indebted in English books to the acuteness of the American Mr. Gootwin and the Englishman Mr. Melvilte IBell, althongh they have been long known in India $(1120, e)$. The series ( ky Jh "i-; gy J i.), where the hyphens point out the diphthongising character of the rowels, shew the exact
16. ( J )-continued.
relation of ( $\mathrm{Jh}, \mathrm{J}$ ) to rowel and consonant. The labial series are much more complex, on account of the back of the tongue being raised for ( u ), giving it a labio-guttural character: They are, therefore, (kw kwh wh "u-; giv gwh w u-). Helmholtz (Tonempfindungen, 3 rd ed. p. I66) recognizes an ( u ), for which the tongue is quite depressed; this would be ( $A_{u}$ ), a much duller sound than (u). For this then we have the labial series ( p ph " Au b bh $A_{u}$.). The ( $f, v$ ) hisses do not enter into either of the latter series, as they have no corresponding vowels. The usual (b v u) and (b w u) series are quite erroneous.

The whole history of ( $\mathrm{Jh}, \mathrm{J}$ ) is analogous to that of ( $\mathrm{wh}, \mathrm{w}$ ), and we have the same varieties. On (186, c) I hare elected to write ( $\mathrm{s} a, \mathrm{ai}$ ), whatever the orthoepists wrote. But it must be observed that real differences exist, that (iá LiJa ja jia) are all possible, and different, and that (ái a[iJ aJ) are possible and different. Mr. Sweet says of Danish (Philol. Trans. $1873-4$, p. 107) : "The roice-stop ( $g$ ) becomes (gh), and often undergoes further weakening, passing through (gwh) into (w), which is frequently the case after back vowels, especially when labial, or (after palatal vowels) into (J). Thus are formed quasi-diphthongs, the ouly ones which the language possesses." This is extremely interesting in reference to the generation of (ai, an) in English from ags. ag, aw. The only diphthongs the English possessed independently of the Normans came in the same way, and the rhyming of these (ai) diphthongs with Norman ai proves that the English pronounced the Norman in the Linglish way, whatever was the Norman sound. 'i'he Danish examples which Mr. Sweet gives are instructive. Thus, en sag, also written sarg and sav (saw), 'saw', en vogn (row;'n); farr (faw;'I) =Icelandio fagr, en skou (skow) = leelandic sliógr; et narn (naw;'n) = Icelandic nafn, en otn (ow;'n) ; jeg (土ал), en lögn (lus;'n), et oje (ovo), en höjde (nhousdo). One sees here an exact modern presentmont of the way in which orrmin perceived the formation of English diphthongs 700 years ago $(489, b)$. The very ohango of the common - $\mathrm{h}_{3}$ into (lai) is paralleled by the colloquial Danish mig, dig, sig, steg, megen, rög, böger $=($ mas, das,

## 16. (J)-continued.

saj, staj, majən, тәј, bэлот). Mr. Sweet adds: "In identifying the second elements of the Danish diphthongs with ( 5 ) and (w) I have been partly influenced by the riews of Danish phoneticians themselves; as far as my own impressions are concerned I must still consider the matter as somewhat doubtful: these combinations may after all be true diphthongs with the second element rather closer than in other languages." If the glide is short, and the second element always short, instead of being long at pleasure, as in English, it becomes extremely difficult to determine whether it is (i, u) or ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ). The closeness of diphthongs consists, I think, 1) in the shortness of the first element, 2) in the shortness of the glide and its contimuously decreasing or increasing force, 3) in the shortness of the second element, but this last has least share in producing the effect. The 'looseness' or 'opemness' of diphthongs consists, 1) in the lengthening of the first element, especially when in connection with the lengthening of the sccond element, 2) in the first decreasing and secondly increasing force of the glide, which may amount to a slur ( $1131, b$ ), and is, 1 think, then charaeteristic of the Italian diphthongs, whose existence is even denicd by some writers. The actual forms of diphthongs, and the 'vanishes' of vowels, or sounds into which they merge on prolongation in varions languages, have to be studied almost ab initio. The two usual statements, that they consist of prefixed and affixed ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ), are the roughest possible approximations. The 'glides' of Mr. Melville Bell were mere evasions of the difficulty, and have been given up by his son, Mr. Graham Bell, and by the two persons in England who have most nsed his Visible Speech, Messrs. Sweet and Nicol. The investigation has considerable philological interest, from the Sanscrit treatment and resolution of diphthongs, down to the introduction of diphthongs into English. But we are only just beginning to appreciate the determinants of the phenomena heard.
(r). See No. 12, (b, i, i). The peculiarities of unaccented syllables will be considered afterwards.
16. ( n ).
(n). See No. 1, (n).
(zs). See No. 12, (zs).
(on•Jenzs). The only difficulties in the glides occur in the passage from ( n ) to ( J ). The first, and, Ithink, the usual English method, is to pass by a slur ( $1131, b$ ), so that, although the voice never really ceases, it is so much reduced in force that the nature of the gliding sound necessarily produced while rapidly shifting from the (n) to the ( $J$ ) position, is inappreciable. The (n) may be lengthened as much as we please ; but if very long, the force of sound decreases rapidly. It is of course un-English to make it very short. The second plan is to pass from the ( n ) to the ( J ) position gradually, so that, before the ( n ) position is released, the middle, or, as Mr. Bell calls it, the front of the tongue rises into the (J) position, the nasalised voice continuing all the time, and then the tip of the tongue is removed from the $(n)$ position, the nasality ceases, and a pure ( J ) glides on to the ( c ). We have thus ( $\partial>n-n j-J<r>n-s)$, and this action is most conveniently introduced for teaching Englishmen the real value of French and Italian ( nj ), which they are apt, like Brücke (Grundziige, p. 71) and Goodwin (op. cit. p. 11), to confuse with (nJ). The French oignon (onjos), in which neither (n) nor (J) are heard, but only (nj), should be carefully compared. An (lj) may be similarly generated from million viâ ( $\mathrm{m}<i>\mathrm{I}-\mathfrak{j}-\mathrm{J}<\mathrm{r}>\mathrm{n}$ ), the intermediate (lj) not occurring in English Of course these ( $\mathrm{nj}, \mathrm{lj}$ ) have been generated by the action of (i), and we find in modern French a tendency to omit (I) in such words as chevalier, which is quite similar to the reduction of ( l j ) to ( i -) in that language. In Italian $g l$ the ( lj ) romains pure. The ( nj ) is also pure in French. Englishmen should carefully study a Frenchman's pronunciation of this final ( nj ) in signe peigne Espagne Cologne Boulogne. The last two words in especial are nsually execrably pronounced in England, where they are very commonly attempted. (Bulo $q$ Buloo.n Sulon Bubo' $i$ n) may all be heard in place of (Bulonj). Sce also (1124, $d$ ).

## 17. BOAT, Bell's (bóut), my

 (boot).17. (b).
(b). Sce No. 9, (b).
(00). The controversy respecting (ou, oo) is preciscly similar to that about ( $\left(i\right.$, , ec), see ( $1108, c^{\prime}$ ), and the same peculiaritics are obscrvable in Dutch (1109, $d^{\prime}$ ). Thus Douders gires "ou in hó with short $u$ " ( $n$ p. cit. p. 15), and Land says, that Dutch oo in boon, look, lonp, is (oo), noticing that it becomes (oo) before $r$, but adds that "in English and low (platte) Hollandish it is replaced by $o^{2} u$ or even $o^{2} u$ (óou), and is even used before $r$ " (op. cit. p. 18). The usage of (óou) before $r$ is not now known in England.

As regards my own pronunciation, I feel that in krow, sow v., ctc., regnlarly, and in $n o$, so, etc., often, I make this labial change, indicated by ( $00^{\prime} w$ ). Wherein does this consist? In really raising the back of the tongue to the (u) position, and producing (oou) or (óou)? or in merely further closing or 'rounding' the mouth to the (n) degree, thus ( $0_{0} 0-0_{11}$ )? or in disregarding the position of the tongne, and merely letting labialised voice of some kind, come out through a lip aperture belonging to (u), that is strictly (oo- $w$ ) ? There is no intentional diphthong, but a diphthong results so markedly, especially when the sound is foreibly uttered, that I have often been puzzled, and could not tell whether know, sow serere; no, so ; or now, sow sis, were intended; I heard (nóu, sóu). liut these are exaggerations, and I believe hy no means common among educated speakers. Whether they will prevail or not in a hundred years, those persons who then hunt out thesc pages as an antiquarian curiosity will be best able to determine. But that $(i, n)$ should have developed into, say, (ai, au), by initial modification, and that ( $e, o$ ), which are constantly generated from these diphthongs, should shew a tendency, which is sporadically and vulgarly consummated, to return to the same class of diphthongs by final amplification, is in \{tself a remarkable phonological fact which all philglogists who would trace the history of worde must bear in mind. As to the English tendency, I think that (oo) developes into (oo'r' most readily before the panse, the ( $k$ ) and (p) series; the first and last owing to closing the mouth, the sccoud owing to

## 17. (oo)-continued.

raising the back of the tonguc. I fiud the tendency least before the ( t ) serics. This, however, is crossed by the vocal action of ( $1, n, r$ ), which develope a precedent ('h), easily rounded into ('bw), and herice generating ( $00^{\circ} w$ ). So strong was this tendency of old that (oul, ónn) were constant in the xirth century, and (oul) remains in Ireland, and many of the English countics also, even where no $u$ appears in writing. Before ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) I do not perceive the tendency. In fact, the motion of the tongue is against it. The sound (bóut) is not only strange to me, bnt disagreeable to my ear and troublesome to my tonguc. Even (boo $u$ t) sounds strange. Mr. M. Bell's consistent use of (éi, óu) as the only received promuciation thoronghly disagrees with my own observations, but if orthocpists of repute inculcate such sounds, for which a tendency already exists, their future prevalence is tolerably secured. As to the 'correctness' or 'impropriety" of such sounds I do not see on what grounds I can offer an opinion. I can only say what I obserse, and what best pleases my own ear, probably from long practice. Neither history nor pedantry can sct the norm.

## ( t ). Sec No. 2, ( t ).

(boot). The synthesis oceasions no diffienlty. The glide from (oo) to ( t ) is short. The voiee ends as the closure is complete ( $1112, c^{\prime}$ ).
18. C.IRT, Bell's (keat), my (kaa.t).
(k). Sce No. 6, (k).
(aa). See $(1148, b)$ as to (aa, aat). The somnd of (a) is, so far as I know, quite strange to educated organs, though common in Scotland (69 c, d). "In reality," says Mr. Murray (Dialect of S. Scotland, p. 110), "the Scotch a, when most broadly pronounced, is only equal to the common Cockney pass, ask, demand (paalıs, aahik, demanhind), and I have beard a London broker pronounce demand drafts with an a which, for broadness, I have never heard bettered in the North." It is the repulsion of such sounds which drires the educated, and especially ladies, into the thimess of (ah, $x$ )。

## 18. (I).

(x). I use (x) in Mr. Bell's (kaxt) for bis 'point-glide' or 'semirowelized sound of ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ),' (Vis. Speech, p. 70) and ( $1099, d$ ). I believe I almost always say and hear (kaat); but as I occasionally say (kaa_rt), I write (kaant). I am not sure that I ever hear or say (kaa't). I have heard (pa'k). No doubt many other varieties abound unobserved. But (park, kart), with a genuine short ( $a$ ) and trilled ( r ), sound to me thoroughly un-English, and (park, kart) are either foreignisms or Northumbrianisms.

## ( t ). See No. 2, ( t ).

(kart). The voice begins at the moment that the ( $k$ )-positiou is relaxed, and not before, the glottis being placed ready for voice from the first. The glide on to ( t ) is short, (ax) being treated as a long vowel. Read ( $k<a a>t^{\bullet}$ ).
19. TENT, Bell's (tenht), my (tent).
(t). See No. 2, ( t ).
( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e}$ ). See No. 7, (e, e).
(nh, n). See (1140, $d^{\prime}$ ) and ( $1148, b c^{\prime}$ ).
(tent). Glides ( $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{e}>\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{t}$ '). The nasalised vorce is heard up to ( $t$ ), when both voice and nasality are cut off. But ( $t$ ) would be quite inaudible unless some flatus or voice followed. In (tents) the (s) gives sufficient flatus to make ( t ) quite distinct. In scentless there is apt to be a glide on to the (1), which is etymologically wrong, but easy, (tl-) being often preferred in English speech to (kl-). But in scentbottle (se.nt-hbo:t'l), a complete ('h) is heard. Observe that in this word ( $\mathrm{t} \cdot \mathrm{hb}$ ) and not ( $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{b}} \mathrm{b}$ ) is written, because to write ( ('b) would be ambiguous, as it might $=(t+\mathfrak{b})$, instead of $=(t+b)$. A Frenchman would use ( t ' hb ).
> 20. HOUSES, Bell's (hháuzyz), my (нั’u'zezs).

(н, иh). Sec (1130, b. 1132, d. 1133, d. to $1135, c)$, and ( $598, b^{\prime}$ ).
20. (áu, a’u).
(а́и, a'u). As to the first element, it is subject to at least all the varieties of those of $\operatorname{long} i\left(1100, a^{\prime}\right)$. But owing to the labial final, the tendency to labialise the first element is more marked (597, $d^{\prime}$ ). Onr ( $(x)$, ah $u$, ou) must be considered as delabialisations of (ou, ou). The scoond element is rather (u) than (u), and may be even $\left(o_{\mathrm{u}}\right)$. Mr. Sweet analyses his own diphtbong as ( $\infty \infty^{\prime} 0$ ) or ( $\infty, 0^{\prime \prime} h w$ ). The great variety of forms which this diphthong consequently assumes, renders it difficult to fix upon any one form as the most usual. But as a gencral rule, the 'rounded' or labialised first element is thought provincial, and the broader (áu, $\dot{\alpha} u)$ seem eschewed, the narrower (áhu, a'u) or ( $0^{\prime} u$ ) finding most favour. The first element is, I think, generally very short, the diphthong very close ( $1151, b$ ), and the second element lengthened at pleasure. Mr. Siweet, however, lengthens the first element.

$$
(z, z s) . \text { See No. } 12,(z s) .
$$

$(y$, e). The unaccented rowels will be considered hereafter.
(на'u*zezs). The initial (п) has been already considered ( $\left.1030, b^{\prime}\right)$. I pronounce it generally by commencing the following vowel with a jerk, not intentionally accompanied by flatus. There is therefore 10 glide from ( H ) to ( $\partial^{\prime} u$ ). The glide from ( $\partial$ ) to (u) is very short and rapidly diminished in force. The glide thence on to $(z)$ is short and weak. The (z) is not prolonged, but treated almost as an initial in zeal, and hence has a very short buzz. The first syllable practically ends at the end of the glide from $(u)$ and does not encroach on the buzz of ( z ) at all. It is possible, and perhaps usual, to distinguish in promnciation the verb and substantive in: 'he houses them in houses.' In the first the glide on ( z ) is distinct, and all the buzz of ( $z$ ) seems to belong to the first syllable, the glide on to the following yowel being reserved for the second. The difference may be indicated thus, the slur dividing the syllables, which have no pause between them: ( ІІно'игーezdhym imio'u-zes).
21. DOG, (dog).
( $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{g}$ ). For the distinction between these sounds and ( $t, k$ ) see No. 9, (b). For the position of the tongue in ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) see ( $1095, d^{\prime} .1105, d^{\prime}$ ).
(0). See No. 10, ( 0, A). To lengthen (o) in this particular word is American, Cockuey, or drawling (dogg, daAg).
(dog). It is instructive to compare dock, dog (dak', dog'), pronounced with very short and very long glides, and consonants, as ( $\mathrm{d}<0>\mathrm{k}$ ) $\ll \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{d}<0>\mathrm{gg}<\mathrm{h} \mathrm{h}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{d}<0>\mathrm{k}!$ ! d $0<0>\mathrm{g}$ ! $)^{\text {) , where (!) }}$ ) is used to indicate extreme brevity. The 'foreign' effect of the latter will become erident. See ( $1145, e^{\prime}$ ).
22. MONKEY, Bell's (maqhki), my (mə-qki).

> (m). See No. 15, (m).
(a, ə). See No. 1, (a, ə).
(q, qh). See No. 13,(q), and also generally ( $1140, d^{\prime}$ ).
(i). See No. 6, (i). As to the influence of the remoral of accent, see hereafter.
(mə $\mathrm{qk} i$ ). The roice begins nasal, and continues very briefly through ( m ), but the nasality is not dropped as long as the ( m )-position is held, else we should get ( mb bq) which is a South African initial, and almost inconceivable to an Englishman. The rowel (a) must not be nasalised at all, though lying between two nasals ( m ) and ( q ). The nasalisation and the voice are droppel at the same moment in passing from (q) to ( $k$ ), without altering the position of the tongue, but the retraction of the usula causes a glide which will be heard distinctly on saying (moqq, moqk!) sharply. The latter ends almost metallically. The syllable divides at the cud of this glide. which, in ordinary speech, is followed by the glde of ( $k$ ) on to (i) without seusible interval. We have then ( $\mathrm{m}<0>\mathrm{q}-\mathrm{k}<i$ ).
23. CAGE, Bell's (kéidzh), my (kecd, $\mathrm{zh}_{1}$,ht).
(k). Sce No. 6, (k), There is no tendency to ( kj -) before the sound of ( $c$.
(ee, éi). See No. 8, (ee).
(d). See No. 21, (d).
(zh, zh). See No. 10, (sh, sh).
(.zh ,sh). Used only before a pause, see $(1104, c)$.
(d, zh). See (1118, d) to (1119, $c^{\prime}$ ). The change from ( k ) to ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}$ ), through a palatal vowel, is distinctly developed in English (203, d) to (209, b), but the change of $(\mathrm{g})$ to ( $\mathrm{d} . \mathrm{zh}$ ) is not so common, and hardly occurs initially. The French $c h, j$, beeane ( t , sh, $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{zh}$ ) in English words, but reason has been assigned for supposing the French sounds to hare been originally ( $\mathrm{t} . \mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{zh}$ ) on ( $31 \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{c}$ ), meaning of course (, t, sho $, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{zh})$. The subsequent recognition of an Italian (sh, zhl), independent of (t, , d), on ( $1118, a$. $800, b^{\prime}$ ), and Mr. Goodwin's re-discovery ( $1119, c$ ) of the Indian ( kJ , $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{J}}$ ), see ( $1120, \mathrm{c}$ ), renders it of course doubtful whether the passage of ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ) Latin, into (sh, zh) Freneh, as in chant, gens I(sha.s. zhas), was really through ( 1. sh, d, zh) at all. The transition nay have been simply ( k kj ky Jh sh; g gj gf J zh ), just as ( J ) or diphthong. ising (i-) certainly became (zh) in French. It is, then, satisfactory to be able to shew a transition from ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ), before palatal vowels, into ( $t, \frac{\text { sh }}{}$, d, , 2h) at so recent a period and in so short a space of time that there is hardly room for the interposition of transitional forms. Martimque, in the West ludies, was colonized by the French in 1635, hence any French upon it cannot be older than the xvith or xvin th century. 'To a large enigration from Martinique to Trimidad, which was only for a short time in possession of the French atter 1696, Mr. J. J. Thomas (a negro of pure blood, who speaks English with a very pure pronumeiation, and is the author of The Theory and Iractice of Creole Grammar, Port of Spain, 1869, on sale at 'Trübner's, London, a most

## 23. (d, 2h)-continued.

remarkable book, indispensable to all students of romance languages) attributes the introduction of French into the (formerly Spanish, and since 1797 British) Island of Trinidad. Mr. Thomas was kind enough to give me an oral explanation of the pincipal peculiarities of the sounds in this Creole French (2.5 September, 1873), which is by no means merely mispronounced French, but rather a romanee language in the second geueration. The $e h, j$ of the French remain as (sh, zh), but $k$, $g$, before palatal rowels, become ( t , sh, d,zh). I ascertainei, not merely by listening, but by inquirs, that Mr. Thomas really commenced the sound by striking his palate with the tip of the tongue behind the gums. The following are examples: French cuite, culotte, re-euler, quinze, marquer, em-barquer; Creole, in Mr. Thomas's orthography, сниite, снilotte, сноиler, снinze, máснеr,
 mat, she, baat,she), where ( $e_{6}$ ) indicates Mr. Thomas's Creole nasality, which sounded to me less than the French (es), and more than the South German (e). Freuch figure, guèpe, gueule; Creole $f \mathrm{G} i e$, Gêpe, $\mathrm{G} o ̂ l e=(f i d, ~ z h i i, ~$ d,zheep, d,zhool). Observe the short (i). For sound of vowels Creole tini (tini) would rhyme with finny (fini), but the accent is of the French nature. Now French $e, q u, q u$ in this position were considertd by Volney (L'Alfabet Européen appliqué aux langues Asiatiques, Paris, 1819) to be quite palatal, apparently (kj, gj), and are distiuguished as his 23 rd and 24th consonants from ( $k, g$ ) his 26th and 27th. Whether in his time, and in the older xyil th century, the ( kj , gj) were distinctly prononnced, there is no proof; but this Creole change leads to this hypothesis.

As I have had occasion to refer to this pronunciation, 1 may remark that the old promunciations of oi occur, (ué) in boète doègt toèle and (ué) in eloéson poéson poésson; also that eu ( $3, \infty$ ) falls into ( $e$ ), and $u(\mathrm{y})$ into (i) or ( 1 ), as so frequently in Germany, and that $e$ muet, when not final, is often replaced by $e, i$ as léver, ritoû, Fr. lever, retour, indeating its probable audibility in the xvinth century, because these changes were entirely illiterate; and moreover that when the $h$ is pronounced, it is, with Mr. Thomas, a distinct ( $\mathbf{u h}$ ), as huler $=$

## 23. (d, zh)-continued.

(rhaale). The letter $r$ seems to have suffered most. When not preceding a vowel, it is entirely mute. Elsewhere Mr. Thomas seemed to make it the glottal ( $x$ ), as in Danish; and just as this is sometimes replaced by urular ( $r$ ) in cases of difficulty, so $r$ seemed to become ( $r$ ) in Creole, especially after $a$ and $g$, when an attempt was made to bring it out clearly. Also just as ( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{g}$ ) suggest ( $o, \mathbf{u}$ ) sounds, the $r$ after $p, b, f, v$, seems to Mr. Thomas to be the tense labial $r$ (u) of those Englishmen who are accused of pronouncing their $r$ as $w$, as distinct from the lax labial $r$ (brh). He therefore writes bounve, bouide, pouatique, pouix, vou', for Fr. brave, bride, pratique, prix, erai. But it seemed to me, when listening to his pronunciation, that even here the sound was ( I ), thus (bтev, brid, ptretik, pтi, VIt). At any rate this glottality would account for all the phenomena. Observe (e), which, as well as (i), seemed to be used by Mr. Thomas. It is a pity that Mr. Thomas, in reducing the Trinidad Creole French patois to writing, did not venture to disregard etymology, at least to the extent of omitting all letters which were not pronounced. Ilis final mute $e$ has no syllabic force even in his verse. The final $e$ then had disappeared from pronunciation before the interual. Of course Creole French differs in different West Indiain Islands. See Contributions to Creole Grammar, by Addison van Name, Librarian of Yale College, Newhaven, U.S., in the Trans. of the Amer. Philol. Assn. for 1869-70, where an account is given of the varieties in Hayti, Martinique, St. Thomas, and Louisiana. It appears that in Louisiana ( $\mathrm{t} . \mathrm{sh}$ ) is also developed as in English from a palat:al $t$, as tehivé, tchué $=\mathrm{Fr}$. tirer, tuer, and that (d.zh) is found in all the varieties in djöle $=$ Fr. gueute. There are also Dutch, Spanish, and English Creole dialects.
(keed, zh.sh). The roice is put on as the (k)-position is released, the glottis being from the first disposed for roice. The (re) is, I think, seldom run on to (ee'j) in this word. The glide on to (d) is short, the buzz of ( $d$ ) is very brief, so that ( $(\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{Zh}$ ) acts as an initial, and the voice, as a general rule, ruus off into (.sh) almost imme-
23. (keed z , $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{sh}$ )-continued.
diately. Observe the effect of prolonging the voice in cugod (keed zht), which some seem to call (keed, zh, sht').
24. AND, Bell's (ahnd), my (, (end).
(ah, x). Sce No. $15,(x)$. Mr. Bell is treating and as an 'unaccented' word, accented he would have written (ænd). The unaccented form will be considered presently.
(n, d). See No. 1, (n).
(,ænd). The voice begins with a elear glottid ( $1129, d^{\prime}$ ), and is continucd through ( $(\mathbb{C})$ with a glide to ( 11 ), eare being taken that nasality does not begin too soon, as (,æ-æ، $>\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{d}$ ), or too late, as (.ae $>\mathrm{d}-11-\mathrm{d})$. The passage from ( n ) to (d) simply ennsists in dropping masality. When the word is emplatic, the (in) is specially lengthened, and the glide from (æ) to (n) becomes clearer.
25. BIRD, Bell's (booud), my (b.d).
(b). See No. 9, (b).
(æ.., I). For (1) preceded by other vowels, see No. $4,(00 x)$. What is the vowel-sound heard when ( $x$ ) is not preecded by other rowels? See (8, b, c. 197, a). Mr. Bell seems to me very theoretical in his distinctions (197, $c$ to 198, a). No doubt that in Scotland, the west of England, and probably many outlying districts, the sounds in word, jowney, furnish, are distinguished from those in prefer, earnest, firm. Smart says (lrinciples, art. 35) that these distinctions are "delicacies of pronunciation which prevail only in the more refined classes of society," but adds that "in all very common words it would be somewhat affeeted to insist on the delicacy referred to." This is quite Gill's docti interdum, and indicates orthoepical fancy. It is easy enough to train the organs to make a distinction, but it is very difficult to dotermine the resulting vowels. In Mr. Bell's table of the relative heights of the tongue for the different vowels (Visible specch, p. 74) they appear as follows, the left hamd having the lowest

## 25. ( (0.1, .1)-continucd.

and the right hand the highest position of the tongue, and that position remaning the same for the vowels in each column, as the differences of effect are produced by other means:
Primary . © a $a \mid$ oha y e $e$ i
 Roznd.... A o u ahohu oh a I Wide round o o u ohoh $u$ h wh ae y Hence in assigning (o) to the $i$, $e r$ set, and (a) to the $u r$ set, he does raise his tongue higher for the first. As I say (o) for his (a) always, it is natural that I should say (o) for his ( $(0)$ as well, that is, in both the er and the ur set of sounds. To say ( a ), or even ( E ), as I seemed to hear in the west of England, is disagreeably deep to my ears. I recollect as a child being offended with (gasl) or (gasel), but I have never been able satisfactorily to determine how this extremely common word girl is actually pronounced. Smart writes " gu'erl," where "gu" merely means (g) and 'indicates that speakers "suffer a slight sound of (i) to intervene, to render the junction smooth" (Principles, art. 77). As far as I can discover, I say (gjool). I do not feel any motion or sound corresponding to ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ). The vulgar (giel), and affected country actor's (gji'hl), seem to confirm this absence of (r) But I should write (gjal), the (.1) shewing an (o) sound interrupted, if descried, with a gentle trill. I trill a final $r$ so easily and readily myself with the tip of the tongue, that perhaps in avoiding this distinct trill I may run into the contrary extreme in my own speech. Yet whenever I hear any approach to a trill in others, it souuds strange.

## (d). See No. 21, (d).

(brd). The roice begius as soon as the lips are closed, continues thr ough their elosure, and glides on to the (o)-position, and this vowel ends with a short glide on to a short (d). Were the glide distinet or the (d) lengthened, we should have (bodd). Whether, as I speak, the words bird, bud are distinguished otherwise than by the length of the glide, or of the (d), I am not sure; but as the short glide and (d) indicate a long vowel (1146, b), the effect is that of (bood, bod). The distinction is very marked, and no

## 25. (b.rd)-contimued.

doubt that it is parily the absence of means to indicate long (әa), partly the distinction felt between the little marked glide on to (d) in bird, and the strongly marked glide in bud, and partly the permissibility of trilling, that has made the use of $e r, u r^{\circ}$ so common for (дz), or whatever the sound may be in different months Any one of the sounds (beed, bagd, boced, baəhd, baəd) would be recognized as an English, though often a broad and unpleasant, sound of bird. The recognition would not be destroyed by inserting a faint trill ( Lr ). But (berd), with short (e) and clear trill ( r ), would be provincial or foreign, and (bard) provincial. Such sounds as (bee'd, be'd, be'd, bi'd) would hardly be understood.
26. CANARY, Bell's (kahnee' $r_{0}{ }^{i}$ ), my (kenee'ri).
(k). See No. 6, (k).
(ah). See No. 24, (ah, æ).
(n). See No. 1, (n).
(ee). This is the long sound of (e), see (1106, e). It is remarkable that though Mr. Bell does not admit (e) as the short vowel in accented syllables, but always employs (E), yet he admits only (ee) as long, and not (EE), although we bave the vulgar American confusion with (ææ). The long (ee) never occurs in reeeived English except before ( $x$ ) or ( r ), but it then always replaces (et).
('r). On referring to p. 197, it will be seen that where Mr. Bell wrote ( $r$ r), or, as it would be more accurate to transcribe him (' $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{c}}$ ), I had written (.rt), as in (kenee.rri). But as this (..) only indieates the rowel sound, an ('), followed optionally by ( r , see ( $1099, e$ ), it is elear that (') is quite enough when ( r ) must follow, so that (kenee' r i) has the same meaning as (kence.rit). Observe that whenever in course of inflection or apposition a vowel follows ( $x$ ), this last sound becomes (' $\mathbf{r}$ ), that is, the trill becomes necessary iustead of optional. Now Mr.

## 26. ('r)-continued.

Bell always writes his 'point-glide' ( $\bar{d} d$ on $\mathrm{p} .1 \overline{5}$ ) when in ordinary spelling $r$ does not precede a vowel, but (' $r$ r $)$ when a vorel follows. I conclude therefore that his 'point glide' is always meant for (') or ('h), forming a diphthong with the preceding rowel. If so, and there was no option of trilling, I was not quite right in transcribing it by ( I ). Mr. Sweet at first analyzed this vocal $r$ into (ah), forming a diphthong with the preceding element, but at present he feels inelined to substitute the simple voice glide unrounded, this is ('h), as I have done, and also Mr. Graham Bell himself (1099, d). Cases of this change of ( $x$ ) into (' r ), are: fear fearing (fïu fie'riq), hair hairy (неел нее'ri), pour pouring (poox poo'riq), poor poorer (pued puz'rix). In case of (aa), the (') is not inserted; star is (staa), not generally (staa'), but sometimes (staar), and starry is (stan rí), not (staa'ri), which would have a drawly effect. Those who cannot say (oor, oo'r-), generally give (As, Aar-), and rarely ( $A^{\prime}$, $A^{\prime} A^{\prime}-$ ) ; thas. (pai, paariq). They do not usually distinguish draws drawers, but call both (draszs). For glory we often hear (dlas $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{i}$ ), even from educated speakers, which is certainly much less peculiar than (gloo $)$ ri), which, when I heard it from the pulpit, completely distracted my attention from the matter to the manner. The words four, fore, for, would be constantly confused by Londou speakers, were not the last usually without force. We often hear before me, for me, for instance, pronounced (bifas'mi, famii', forinstens).
(i). See No. 6, (i). Here it occurs in an open syllable, sce (1098, $e^{\prime}$ ), and 'unaccented.'
(kenee'ri). The syllables are all distinctly separated in sjeech, but
 that is, although the voice is not eut off after ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{h}$ ), the force diminishes so much that there is no appreciable glide from ( k ) to ( n ) or ('h) to (r). Here then we have the rather unusual case of syllabieation, assumed to be general by Bell (Vis. S. p. p. 118), where the consonant begins and the vowel ends the syllable.

## Unaccented Sillables.

By accent I mean a prominence invariably given to one or more syllables in a word, on all occasions when it is used, unless special reasons require attention to be drawn to one of the other syllables. By emphasis I mean a prominence given to one or more words in a clause, varying with the mood and intention of the speaker. Accent is therefore "fixed," and emphasis is "free." The mode in which prominence is given may be the same in each, but as accented syllables may oecur in emphatic words, the effects of emphasis must be considered independently of the effects of accent. Modern rersification is guided by prominence, whether due to accent or emphasis. Prominence in English accent is due principally to foree, occasioning greater loudness of the most vocal parts of a syllable, and greater clearness. The non-prominent syllables, commonly called unaccented, are usually deficient in foree, and in English decidedly obscure. Obscurity is, however, no necessary accompaniment of want of force, and not associated with it in all languages. The same is true for unemphatie srllables. There are many monosyllables which in English speech are habitually united with one another, and with the adjacent words, so as to form temporary new words, so far as pronuneiation is concerned. It is only our habits of writing which lead us to consider them as distinct. In this combination they suffer alterations in rarious ways, but these are habitually disregarded in orthography; and the question of how far they should be recognized in any reformation of spelling is at present quite unsettled. Most English phonologists have written a pada or analysed, and not the real sanhita or combined, worls of speceh. Mr. Melrille Bell forms an exception, but only to a moderate extent. Emphasis in English does not consist merely of loudness, or of additional loudness. Length, quality, distinctness, rapidity, slowness, alterations of pitch, all those varieties of utterance which habitually indicate feeling in any language, come into play. With these I shall not interfere. The rarions physical constituents of accent and emphasis have been consilered by me elsewhere. ${ }^{1}$ Here we have only to consider, to some extent, the difference of promunciation actually due to differences of prominence, so fir as I have been able to note them.

Mr. Melville Bell (Vis. Sp. p. 116) lays down as one of the characteristics of English "the comparatively indefinite sounds of unaccented vowels," and explains this (ib. p. 117) as follows: "The difference between unaceented and accented rowels in colloquial pronunciation is one not merely of stress [foree, loudness], but, in general, of quality also." This should mean that there are different series of rowel-sounds in accented and unaceented syllables. "The following are the tendencies of unaccented rowels," meaning, I beliere, the tendencies of the speaker to alter the quality of a rowel as he removes force from it. The speaker thinks that he leaves the vowel unaltercel, and the remission of foree induces him involun-

[^5]tarily to replace it by another vowel. In our usual orthography, the letter generally remains, and hence we are led to say confusedly that the rowel itself alters. We are in the habit of considering two different sounds to be the same rowel when they are commonly represented by the same sign. Possibly at one time there was a clear pronunciation given to these rowels, similar to that given to rowels having the same written form in accented syllables. We have no proof of this, for writers may from the first have contented themselves with approximative signs in the unaccented syllables. This is in fact most probable in English, to which language alone the present remarks refer, every language haring its own peculiar morle of treating such syllables. Mr. Bell proceeds to describe these 'tendencies' as follows :-for the techuical language, see (13, b).
"I. From Long to Short.-II. From Primary to Wide.-III. From Low and Mid to Mid and High,-IV. From Back and Front to Mixed.-V. From 'Round' (Labio-Lingual) to Simple Lingual. -VI. From Diphthongs to single intermediate sounds. The 2nd, 3rd, and 4th tendencies combined, affeet all vowels in unaceented syllables, and give a general sameness to thin sounds. The 'HighMixed Wide' rowel (y) is the one to which these tendencies point as the prevailing unaceentual sound. ${ }^{1}$
"The next in frequency are:-the 'high-back-wide' (r), which takes the place of the 'mid-back' rowels ( $a, a$ ) ;-the 'high-frontwide' ( $i$ ), which takes the place of the 'front' (i, éi) ;-the 'mid-front-wide' (e), which takes the place of ( E );-and the 'mid-mixedwide' (ah), which takes the place of ( $x$ ). Greater precision is rarely heard, eren from careful speakers; but among the rulgar the sound $(y)$ almost represents the rowel-gamut in unaccented syllables.
"The 5th tendeney is illustrated in the vulgar prommeiation of unaceented $\bar{o}$ (in borongh, pronounce, geology, philosophy, etc.) as (a) instead of (o); and the (a) constantly tends forwards and upwards to ( $\partial$, ah, $\mathfrak{r}$ ) and ( $y$ ).
"The 6th tendeney is illustrated in the rulgar pronunciation of the pronouns $I$ and our ( $\partial$, or); in the change of $m y$ (mái) into (my) or (mi), when unemphatic; in the regular pronnuciation of the terminations -our, -ous (x., as); in the change of the diphthong day (déi) into (de, di, dy) in Monday, ete.
"The possibility of alphabeticully expressing such fluctuations of sound is a new fact in the history of writing. In ordinary 'Visible Speech' printing a standard of promunciation must, of course, be adopted. Custom is the lawgiver, but the habits of the vulgar are not to be reflected in such a standard. The principle may be safely laid down that the less difference a speaker makes between accented and unaccented syllables-sare in quantity-the better is his pronunciation."

From this last principle I dissent altogether. Any attempt to prononnce in accordance with it would be against English nsage, and wonld be considered pedantic, affected, or 'strange,' in even

[^6]the best educated society. Mr. Bell ends by referring to a table, which, he says, " exhibits the extent to which distinctive sounds for unaccented rowels may be written in accordance with educated usage." This table (Vis. Sp. p. 110) says that the following sounds "occur only in unaccented syllables, and in colloquial speech."

| (ъ) | in -tion, -tious, -er | (oh) in -or, -ward |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (y) | in the, -es | ('h $w$ ) in now, out |
| (uh) in -ure, -ful | (دw) in our |  |
| (oh) in -ory |  |  |

Mr. Bell accordingly consistently carries out these 'tendencies' in his Yisible Speech examples. I regret to say that I consider them principally theoretical, and that they differ both from my own use and my own observations. Historically of course his 6th tendency, as illustrated, is founded on a mistake, quite parallel to that which declares $a$ to become $a n$ before a rowel, instead of $a n$ to have become $a$ before a consonant. It is not the diphthong which has in these cases degenerated into a vowel, but the rowel which in accented syllables has developed into a diphthong. But so unfixed are the habits of our pronunciation, that almost any utterance of unaccented syllables would be intelligible; and so dreadfully afraid are many speakers of being classed among the 'rulgar' (whom Mr. Bell and most orthoepists condemn, but who, as the Latin vulgus implies, form the staple of speakers), that they become so 'careful', as almost to create a spokien as well as a written 'literary language,' which is altogether artificial.

To analyse our unaccented sounds is extremely difficult. They are so fleeting and obscure, and so apt, when we attempt to hold them, to alter in character, by involuntary muscular action of the speaker, that even when the observer is the speaker himself, no implicit reliance can be placed on his results. A word dislocated from its context is like a fish out of water, or a flower in an herbarium. In the introduction to the third part of this book (subsequently enlarged and distributed), I proposed certain lists of words containing unaccented syllables, in some faint hope of getting a few answers respecting them. I have received none. I shall therefore endearour to answer them myself, so far, and so far only, as I believe I do actually pronounce in unaccented speech. Before doing so, I beg to call attention to my radical difference from Mr. Bell in using (e, ə) for his ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{a}$ ) ; to my omission of the permissive trill in (1) and consequent substitution of ( $\partial, \mathfrak{e}$, 'h,'), together with my use of a trilled ( r ) before vowels in place of his untrilled ( $r_{0}$ ), see (1098, bc); to my use of the simple jerk (ir) in place of ( $\mathrm{Hh}, \mathrm{mh}, \mathrm{Lh}$ ) ; and to my utter disregard for all conventionalities in this attempted photograph. As to the symbol (e) I do not feel quite sure whether it exactly represents my sound, which howerer I think is not quite (o). As a general rule, when (o) is written, it is supposed to glide on distinctly to the following consonant. When ( e ) is used, this is not the case. Hence, in closed syllables, (b) has the effect of a long unaccented vowel (əo), and (ə) of a short unaccented vowel. Consequently (r)
answers to the sound which English and American humorists write either $a$ or er unaccented, in an open syllable; and (o) to what ther write $u$ in a closed syllable. The exact analysis of the sounds is extremely difficult. The English sound meant is not French e mute, nor is it Icelandic $u$ final, both of which appear to me as ( $)$. But I seem to hear it in the German efinal as usually pronounced, when it is not pedantically or locally replaced by (e). And it is probably the same sound as was represented by final $e$ in Old English, (119, $c^{\prime} .318, a .678, b$ ). To those who, like Mr. Murray, use (a) in accented syllables, the unaccented sound becomes (ə). When, howerer, as in my orm case, the accented sound is already ( $\partial$ ), the unaccented decidedly differs from it, and this difference I represent, with considerable hesitation, by (b). This hesitation arises from my not being satisfactorily conscions of the rising of the back of the tongue in passing from (ə) to ( $\mathfrak{b}$ ), as in (bə-te) better, and hence the uneasy sense that after all the difference may be merely one of mode of synthesis, dependent on the nature and length of glides. See (1145, $e^{\prime}$ ).
I. Terminations involving $R, L, M, N$.
-and, husband brigand headland midland (нәzbend bri'gend не-dlend mi dlend). I doubt as to (pn), or ('n), but feel that there is some gliding and very obscure rocality before (n). Some 'careful speakers' might venture on (ænd) in the last three words, none would do so in the first, ags. hûsbonda; and yet I think the second vowel differs from the first, and that we do not say (razband). The final (d) of this word is constantly omitted before a following consonant, as ( $\quad$ әі нә'zbren noo' $u$ zs).
-end, dividend legend (dividynd le•dzhend). Both foreign words. The first from speakers not much used to it, like the second, ends in (-end), those much used to it say (-ind), some may say (-end), but I think the intermediate (-ynd) more usual. The second, being a 'book word,' has quite an artificial pronunciation.
-ond, diamond almond (da' $i$ 'mend aa mend). Possibly some say (d $\partial^{\prime} i \cdot \mathrm{r}$ mend), many say (da' $\imath \cdot m e n d$ ), or even (da' $i \cdot m^{\prime} n$ ).
-und, rubicund jocund (ruu bikənd dzho kand). Here (on) is distinct, simply because the words are mnusual.
-ard, haggard niggard sluggard renard leopard (нæe•ged ni${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ged}$ sla•ged re ned le ped). Possibly ( -od , oood) may be the real sound. Of course (-brod might be used, but would probably not be recognized, and also (-'rd). But (нæ'gæ゚d, нæ'gærd) would be
ridiculous. The glide on to the (d) is short, and bence the preceding vowel has a long effect. Thus (niged) is more like ( $\mathrm{n} \cdot \cdot \mathrm{g} \cdot \boldsymbol{} \mathrm{d}$ ) than (ni$\cdot \mathrm{gadd}$ ). This supplies the lost $r$.
-ercl, halberd shepherd (нælbed, -bet, she ped). The aspiration entirely falls away in the second word.
-ance, guidance dependance abundance clearance temperance ignorance resistance (ga' $i \cdot d$ dens dipe ndens ebondens klicrens te mperens $i$ 'gnerens rizistens). The termination is sometimes affectedly called (-æns), but this sound is more often used for clearness in public speaking, and it appeals to the hearer's knowledge of spelling. The first word has very frequently (gj), even from young speakers. The (di-, ri-, $\varepsilon$-) belong to III. Some 'careful speakers' will say ( $i$ 'gnorens)! Observe that (xns), considered as the historical English representative of Latin -antia, would be erroneous in the second and last words, and have no meaning in the first and fourth. 'Etymological' pronunciation is all pedantry in English, quite a figment of orthoepists.
-enee, licence confidence dependence patience (la' $i$ sens konfidens dipe nduns pee shens). This termination is absolutely undistinguishable from the last, except in the brains of orthocpists. Some 'careful speakers,' however, will give (-ens), some 'vulgar' speakers go in for (-ins), and some nondescripts hover into ( $-y \mathrm{~ns}$ ).
-some, meddlesome irksome quarrel-
 The hiss of the (s) takes up so much of the syllable that the ( -rm ) is more than usually indistinet and difficult to determine, but I do not hear quite (som). Some will say (kworelsom), when they think of it.
-sure, pleasure micasure leisure elosure fissure (ple'zhe me'zhr le $\quad$ zhe kloo'zhe f $i$-shr:). Some say (lii'zhe). Before a following vowel ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) is retained, as (dhi ple zherev me zheriq físhezs). The spelling ( (-ure) has produced ( $-u$, -uh., - $1 u$ ’). They are all pseud-orthoepical.
-ture, creature furniture vulture venture. My own (-tiu', krii'tiu' foe •nitiu' voltiú re ntiú') with (r) retained when a vowel follows, is, I fear, pedantically abnormal, althongh I habitually say so, and (krii t, she, fce-mit, she ralj, she ve•nft,she) are the usual sounds. Ferdure verger are usually both ealled (var-d,zhe).
-al, cymbal radical logieal evnical metrical poetical local medial lineal rietuals (si•mbel redikel lodzhikel si'nikel me'trikel pojetikel loo*kel mii dijel linijel vitulz). The words cymbal symbol are identical in sound. Are the pairs of terminations -cal -cle, and -pal -ple, distinguished, compare radient radiele, and principal principle? If not, is al really (-zl) or merely ('l)? I think that the distinetion is sometimes made. I think that I make it. But this may be pedantic habit. No one can think mueh of how he speaks without becoming more or less pedantic, I fear. I think that geuerally -cal, -pal, are simply ( $\left.-k^{\prime} \mathrm{l},-\mathrm{p}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}\right)$.
$-e l$, camel pannel apparel (kromcl pronel epererel). Some maysay (æрærel).
-ol, earol wittol (kærel wittel). Some say (kx rol). The last word being obsolete is also often read (w $₹ \cdot+$ tol).
-am, madam quondam Clapham (mæ*den kuc.ndem Klæpem). Of late, however, shopwomen say (ma.diem) very distinetly. I do not recall having ever heard (Klwpнrem) either with ( $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{ulh}$ ) or ( x ).
-om, freedom seldom fathom venom (frii•dem seldem ferdhem ve•nem). Perhaps emphatically (frii $\cdot d$ om) may be heard, but I think that the ( m ) is more usually prolonged.
-an, suburban logician bistorian Christian metropolitan, and the compounds of man, as woman watchman
countryman (subəa ben lofahioshen histoo'rijen Kri'sjt shen me:tropoliten, wemen wot shmen korntrimen). No one says (wu mæn), but (w $2 \cdot \mathrm{t}$, shmæn ko ntrimæn) may be heard, as the composition is still felt.
-en, garden ehildren linen woollen (gaardn tsh $\quad$-ldryn lin $\frac{i n}{}$ wu lin). Here great arbitrariness prevails. See Smart's Principles, art. 114, who begins by quoting Walker's dictum: "nothing is so vulgar and ehildish as to hear suivel and heaven with the e distinet, and novel and chicken with the $e$ suppressed," and then observes, "either the remark is a little extravagant, or our prejudices are grown a little more reasonable since it was written," and then adding, "still it is true that we eannot oppose the polite and well-bred in these small matters without some detraction from their favourable opinion; and the inquiry when we are to suppress the rowel in these situations, and when we are not, will deserve the best answer it is capable of," and he proceeds to examine them all. In the mouth of speakers who are not readers, the rowel is suppressed in all words ther are in the constant habit of asing. In the words learned out of books the vowel is preserved because written. In "polite" and "well-bred" families, the fear of being thought vulgar leads some, (espeeially the ladies who have been at sehool,) to speak differently from non-readers, and shew by their pronunciation that shibboleth of education, a knowledge of the current orthography of their language -the rest is all "leather and prunello," for who knows it but word-grabbers? and who are they? are they "polite" and "well-bred"? are they "in socicty"? Poor Mopsae ! they are misled to be as bad as the Docti interdum: Affectation and pedantry are on a par in language.
-on, deacon pardon fashion legion minion occasion passion vocation mention question felon (dii•kn paa•dn fe'shen lii•)dahen mi'nsen okee'zhen pe'shen vo, kee shen me'nshen kue'stsan fe-lan). Mr. Bell draws attention to the difference between men shun him and mention him, in the quality of the vowels (men shan, me'nshen), in Eng. Vis. Sp. p. 15. Some, not many, say (kue-shen), and fewer still say perhaps (kwes'shon). In felon I hear clear (on). -ern, eastern carcrn (iisten lie ven).

But if so, what becomes of the distinction between eastern Easton? It seems quite lost, unless a speaker exaggerates the words into (ii•stəən Ii ${ }^{\text {stannu }}$ ). Having lived for some years in a set of houses called 'Western Villas,' I remember the great diffienlty I always had in preventing pcople from writing 'Westou Villas,' shewing that western Weston were to them the same sounds. -ar, ricar cedar rinegar scholar secular (vike sii•de rínige skole se-kiále le). To say (-aa) in these words would be as disagreeable as in together, which I heard Toole the actor in a burlesque
exaggerate into (te)ge $\begin{gathered}3 \mathrm{~g}^{2} \\ 2\end{gathered} \mathrm{dh}^{2}{ }^{7} \alpha \alpha$ ), the upper figures indicating length, see (1131, $d$ ).
$-e r$, robber chamber member render ( $\mathrm{r} \cdot$ •be t.shee mbe me*mbe re-nde), unless a rowel follows, when ( $r$ ) is added.
-or, splendor superior tenor error actor victor (sple nde siúpií'rije te'ng e're ae-kte vi $i$ kte $)$. To use ( $(-2,-\mathrm{A})$ with or without ( r ) is to me quite strange.
-our, labour neighbour colour farour (lee be nee be kr le feeve). Considering that the distinction of spelling in -or, -our is quite arbitrary, any corresponding distinction of sound is out of the question.
-ant, pendant sergeant infant quadrant assistant truant (pe'ndrut saa.)d, zhent $i$ infent kerodrent esistent truirrut). Truant is dialectally monosyllabie, as (trannt).
-ent, innoceut quiescent president (innesent kwa'ije'sent pre'zident). I can find no difference between this and the last.
-ancy, infancy tenancy constancy (infensi te'nensi $i$ k. nstensi).
-ency, deceney tendency currency (diisunsi te'ndensi $i$ k $ə$ rensi). The slightly rarer occurrence of tendency would lead to occasional (te ndensi).
-ary, begrary summary granary notary literary (be'geri sə meri gra neri noo teri lit terseri). The last word raries, as ( 1 itereri, li teree:ri), with a double accent.
-ery, robbery bribery gunnery (ro beri bra'iberi gə'neri), absolutely the same as the last.
-ory, priory cursory victory history
 teri orreteri). Some endeavour to say $^{2}$ (ri'ktri $\mathbf{H} i$ 'strori), and probably succeed while they are thinking of it. In the last word there is often a slight sccondary accent, so that (orets:ri) or perhaps

Mr. Bell might say (orehth:ri) may be heard; and similarly (prijper retsri), etc.
-ury, usury luxury (Jiáu'zheri la•ksheri). Such forms as (suu'ziüri, loksiúri), or even (sua zhari ləkshari), are pseud-orthoepic.

## II. Other Terminations.

$-a$, sofa idea sirrah (soo fe ${ }^{\prime} i \boldsymbol{j}$ dii $\mu$ e sitre). There is often a difficulty in separating idea from $I$, dear! ( (a'i dii'), but in dear (di $i^{\prime}$ ) there should be a complete monosyllabic diphthong, in idea at most a slur ( $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} i \mathrm{j}$ dii- -B ). The last word is often called ( $\mathrm{s}^{\circ} \mathrm{rr}$ ). In all these terminations the $(-\varepsilon)$ recalling a written -er, and hence the supposed vulgarity of adding on an ( r ),-which in the er case really occurs euphonically before a following rowel, - ‘careful speakers,' and others when they want particularly to call attention to the absence of $r$, will often use ( -ah ) or (-aa), as (soo fah a' $i$ diii $\jmath$ ah). This is oratorically permissible (by which I mean, that it is not offensive, unintelligible, or pedantic), and very convenient for giving distiuctuess. In ordinary speech, however, $(-8)$ is universal.
$-0,-$ ow, - ough : hero stucco potato tobacco widow yellow fellow sorrow sparrow borough (Hiì' ro strako potee'j' to tobereko wi'do Je lo felo saro sperto bəro). Here great varieties occur, but the usual 'edncated' pronunciation is $(-a)$; in the last word, however, $(-\mathrm{e})$ is rery common, as (bare). I think (o) in (нй̈'ro) is universal; the (в) in (sto $\cdot \mathrm{ke}$ ), the next word, seems to belong to journeyman plasterers. Iu the three next the well-known (tee te bxeke w $i \cdot \mathrm{de}$ ), in Ireland (treerti wid d ), make ( $(-0)$ obligatory among the "polite" and "well-bred." But (se-le fel в) are very common in educated speech, and even ( $\mathrm{se} \cdot \mathrm{le}$ ) is heard from older speaters. I don't recollect hearing ( $83 \% \mathrm{rg}$ ), but certainly (spare) may be heard in Londou.
-ue, -ow: value nephew (veeliú ne'viü). No educated person says (reeli ne:vi).
-iff, -oek: sheriff bannock haddock paddock (she rif bremolk hiedok paxdak), with distinct ending in Encliand, but all end in simple ( $(-)$ ) in Scotland.
-ible, -ibility: possible possibility. I am used to say (prosibl porsibilitit), but the common custom, I think, is (parsbl, prsefbriluti).
-ach, stomach lilach (sto mok $1 \jmath^{\prime} \cdot \cdot \mathrm{l} \mathrm{l} \mathrm{k}$ ), with distinct ( 0 ), but maniac (mee niak) preserves (e).
-acy, -icy: prelacy policy (pre-lesi polisi) are my pronunciation, but ( $\mathrm{p} \cdot \mathrm{l} \mathrm{lssi}$ ) is, I think, more common. In obstinacy ( 0 -bstines $i$ ) a slight tendency to sceondary acceutual force and a reminiscence of obstinate ( $\sigma$ bstinet) often preserves (-esi).
-ate, [in nouns] laureate frigate figurate (las rijet fri'get fi'giu)ret). Usage varies. In frigate the commonness of the word produces (fri git); in figurate, its rarity gives (fi-giú reet), but(fi.geret) would be its natural sound. In verbs, as demonstrate, I usually say (-eet, de-menstreet). Many persons, perhaps most, accentuate (dimornstret). I am accustomed to talk of the ( $I$-lastree:ted Niunzs), the newsboys generally shout out ( $I$ la stretid Nuuzs), with a tendency to drop into (la $\cdot$ str't'd).
-age, village image manage cabbage marriage (vi'led,zh $i$-med, zll maened, zh kæ•bed, zh mæorid,zh). Of course (d, zh, sh $)$ is said before the pause. The rowel is commonly ( $i$ ) in all, but I feel a difference in marriage carriage. The (i) is very common in village cabbage.
-ege, privilege college (privilid zh, kolid,zh). Somesay (-ed,zh); (-iid,zh) is never heard. Some say (pri relid,zh), apparently to prevent the concurrence of ( $i$ ).
-ain, -in: certain Latin (səə•tyn Læ•tin) are, I think, my sounds, but (sor'tn Le'tn) are not uncommon, (sar'tin sar'teen) may occasionally be heard. Captain is generally (kæptin), 'carefully' (kæ‘pten), 'rulgarly' (kæ'pn).
-ing, a singing, a being (e si-qiq, $\varepsilon$ bii- iq). In educated English pronunciation the -ing, either of noun or participle, is distinct ( $-i q$ ). Any use of (-in) or distinction of ( $-i \mathrm{n},-i q$ ) is provincial or uneducated.
-ful, mouthful sorrowful (ma'u'thfud soroful). Educated speakers rarely scem to fall into (sorvfel). In mouthful the composition is too evident to allow of this, and indeed the word is often made (mə'u'thf $u: 1$ ).
-fy, -ize : terrify signify civilize baptize (te rifo'i si'gnifo'i si vila'iz bepto' $i$ z $z$. The final diphthong is quite distinct.
-it, -id, -ire, -ish: pulpit rabbit rabid restive parish (pulpit rebit rebid restiv perish). The (i) is quite unobscuicd.
$-i l$, evil devil (iirvl de vl). 'Careful speakers,' especially clergymen, insist on (ii•vil de vil), pseud-orthocpieally.
$-y,-l y,-t y$, etc. : mercy truly pity (moo si truu $\mathrm{l} i \mathrm{p} i \cdot \mathrm{t}$ ), with unobscured (i). To pronounce (truu-la $i$ ) is not now customary, even in biblical reading; and (truu'la' $i^{\prime}$ shuu'la' $i^{\prime}$ ) are mere 'vulgarities.'
-mony, harmony matrimony testimony (haa meni me'trimeni te-stimeni). The first word has, perhaps invariably, (-meni). In the other two a secondary accent sometimes super. vencs, and (-m•o:ni, -mə:ni, -moh:ni, -moh:ni) may be heard, which occasionally even amounts to (-moo:ni).
-most, hindmost utmost bettermost foremost (на' $i$ 'ndmast $\partial$ 'tmast be temast foo ${ }^{\circ}$ most). This is, I think, the regular unconscious utterance, but (-moost) is occasionally said. The (-most) is in fact a regular degradation of (-most).
-ness, sweetness, etc., (swii tnes). The (s) generally saves a vowel from degradation, at least with me. Which of the three ( $-n e s,-n i s,-n y s)$ is most common, I do not know.
-eous, righteous piteous plenteous
 think, my own 'careful,' i.e. rather pedantic, pronunciations. I believe that (rai $i^{\circ} \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{s}}$ shas, $\mathrm{p} i^{-} \mathrm{t}_{1}$ shas $\mathrm{p} i \cdot \mathrm{t}_{1}$ shijes
 more common. These are all orthographical changelings of uncommon words. The first is merely religious now-a-days, with a bastard, or rather a nistaken, French termination.
-ious, precious prodigious (pre'shas prodid, zhas). Never divided into (-i)as).
-ial, -ialty, -iality: official, partial partiality, special specialty speciality (oti shel, paa-shel paa:shije-liti, speshel spe'shelti spe:shire liti). All the (-i)æl-) are orthographical products.
-ward, forward backward awkward upward downward froward toward towards (faA•Wed bæ kwed Aa•kwed aptred da'n'nwed froo) ed toofed too'(lzs). An older pronunciation of (fored berked Aa•ked) may be occasionally heard from educated speakers; it is common among the 'vulgar.' I have not noticed the omission of (W) in upward downuard, or its insertion in the rather unusual words froward toward. The word towards is variously called (too'dzs, tuwandzs), and even ( $\operatorname{ta}^{\prime}$ u) $\cdot$ edzs), of which the first is most usual, the second not uncommon, and
the last very rare from educated speakers.
-2vise, likewise sidewise ( 1 ' $\hat{i}$ kwa'izs sa' $i \cdot d$ dra'izs), with distinct diphthong.
-wife, midwife housewife goodwife. Here orthographical readers say (mi•d. พว'if нә'u'swa' if gu:dwa' $i \cdot \mathrm{f}$ ). But (mi dif) is more common, and no actor would speak otherwise in deseribing Queen Mab, RJ 1, 4, 23 (717, 54). The thread-and-needle-case is always called a (hazif), and the word (hazi), now spelled hussy, shers the old disuse of (w), and similarly ( $\mathrm{g} u \cdot \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{i}$ ), now written goody.
-wich, Greenwich Woolwich Norwich Ipswich (Gri nid,zh Wrulid, zh Norid,zh $I$ psid zh$)$. The last is the local pronunciation, ( I•pswit,sh) is merely orthographical, and similarly I have heard the Astronomer Royal say (Grii'nwit, sh). Living in the place, no doubt (Grinid zh ) is an abomination in his ears. Railway porters also are apt to 'corrupt' names of places orthographically, as When they eall Uttoxeter (Juuto $\cdot \mathrm{ksite}$ ), in place of ( $\mathrm{g} \cdot \mathrm{ksetg}$ ).
-eth, speaketh (spii•keth). The termination haring gone out of nse, the pronunciation is purely orthographical.
-ed, pitted pitied, added (pi $\mathfrak{\text { ted }}$ p $i \cdot$-tid, $æ \cdot d e d)$. The $-e d$ is lost in ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}$ ), except $\operatorname{after}(t, d)$. What the vowel is, seems to have been a matter of doubt from very early times, -id, - od constantly interchanging in MSS. At present (-ed, -id, -yd) are heard. Few make the distinction, here given, between pitted and pitied.
-es, -'s, -s: princes prince's, churches church's, paths path's, cloth's eloths clothes, wolves (pri.nsezs, tshəə tshezs, paadhzs paaths, kloths kloths kloodhzs, wulvzs). The vorrel in -es is subject to the same doubt as that in -ed. In the genitive path's, I am accustomed to give (-ths), in the plural paths, to give (-dhzs). The plural cloths is unfamiliar to me, and my pronunciation is orthographical. In clothes the $t h$ is usually omitted, as (kloo $w \mathrm{zs}$, tloo $w \mathrm{zs}$ ). The cry (ot tloo)! for old clothes! used to be very well knorn in Loudon fifty years ago, and is not yet quite extinct; although the familiar long-bearded Jew, with a black bag over his shoulder and a Dutch clock (really a Schwarzwälder Ubr) under his arm, the pendulum separate and held in his hand, while one finger moved the hammer which struck the hour, beating a ringing time to his (ol
tloo! tloo! tloo!), has given place to a "card" left in an envelope addressed "to the mistress of the house," and offering to buy "wardrobes" to any extent, "for shipment to the colonics" !

## III. Various Initial Syllables.

a-, with various following consonants : among astride alas abuse avert adrance adapt admire accept affix $v$. amounce append afert alcove abyss. The utmost variety prevails. When two pronounced consonants follow, as in aecept advance admire alcove (ækse 'pt ædvaa'ns ædma' $i^{\prime} \cdot$ ælkoo v), there is generally an unobscured (e). OtherWise the ordinary custom is to pro.. nounce ( $\partial$, r), or cren ('b) with excessive brevity and indistinctness, on account of the following accent. On the other hand, some speakers insist ou (ah), or even (æ), although for (æ) they feel obliged to glide on to the following consonant. This is usually done when the following consonant is doubled in writing, and the pronunciation is then orthographical, as in (ænว'u•ns, æpe•nd), and in unusual words as (æbis). But
 all be heard. If any one say (e), as ( $\mathrm{m} \circ \cdot \mathrm{q}$ ), it is a pure mistake.
$e$-, with rarious preceding consouants: elope event emit, beset begin, depend debate, despite destroy, precede repose. None of these words are of Saxon origin, hence varieties of fanciful and orthographical pronunciations, as (e, ii), and the more usual, but unacknowledged (i). In some cases, as decent deseent dissent, fear of ambiguity will lead to (dii'sent diise'nt disse'nt), but the two last words are usually (dise'nt). In cmerge immorge, we have occasiomally (ii məo: dzh $i \cdot \mathrm{~mm}$ mə:dzh), but usually (imaə dzli) for both. After (r) the (i) is predominant. Simple (e) is often (ii) or (i), as (iiloo p, iive'nt), but (i) seems easier for English organs at present. Many insist on (bese $\cdot t$, begi $\cdot n$, depernd), etc., but this seems to me theoretical, though I hear oceasionally (be-, de-), etc. In despite destroy, the (s) preserves the (e) in my mouth, and I say (despu${ }^{\prime} \cdot{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{t}$ destro $i^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ ). In eclipse I think I usually keep (e) and say (ekli.ps), but cannot be sure of not often saying ( $i$ ) $\mathrm{kl} \cdot \mathrm{ps}$ ).
$b i$-, binocular bicnnial bilingual. Here usage varies. Some insist on distinct (ba'i), but others use (bi) when the word has become familiar. Thus
(bo'ino kiúle) used always to be said, but since the binocular nicroscopes and opera glasses have become common, (bino kiulu) is often heard. In bisect we hear both (bo'ise'kt bise•kt) often from the same mathematical speaker, at sliort intervals. When the accent falls on the $b i$, we usually have (bi$)^{\circ}$ ), as bicyele biparous (bi-sikl bi-perrs), but occasionally (bo'i) remains, as binary (ba'ineri) ; compare combine combination (kombo'in ko:mbinec shen).
di-, direct divide (dire kt divo' $i \cdot \mathrm{~d}$ ). The last word has always (di), the first has constantly (da'i). The same diversity exists in this word with divest diversion, etc. All these (do'i) are clearly orthographical.
o-, pro-, etc. : oblige occasion oppose promote produce $v$. propose (obla' $i \cdot \mathrm{~d}$ zh okce'zhen opoo'z promoo't prodiáa's propoo z ) seem to be my pronunciations, but (0) is sometimes heard in all, and (e) occasionally, as $I$ should be mueh obliged to you if you would oceasionally promote this proposal, (コ' $i$ shedbi
 zheneli premoo't dhisprepoozzel).
to-, to-morrow together (tumoro tuge dhe). I have been accustomed to consider these my pronunciations, but suspect that I often fall into ( $\mathrm{t} u-$, te-).
for-, fore-: forbid forgive forego foretell (fabi-d fagi. $\mathbf{v}$ foo'goo' $w^{\prime}$ foo ${ }^{\circ}-$ te $\cdot l l$ ). But the two last have frequently simple (fA-).

## IV. Unemphatic Words.

These words may become enrphatic or reccive more or less degrees of force, causing their sound to vary. They have therefore clear forms and obscure forms, and these forms are assumed pretty much at the pleasure of the speaker. The obscurity often amounts to absolute suppressiun of vocality. They are here given, in the order of frequency of oceurrence, according to Mr. D. Nasmyth (Practical Linguist, English, 1871), who determined this order by actual numeration in books of excecdingly different character. The clear sound is given first, separated by a $(-)$ from the rest.
and (xud-end, en, n, uh), the (d) is most frequently omitted before aconsnnant, as bread and milk (bre:deunnelk). The sound is often so extremely brief that it is recognized by instinct rather than by hearing.
the (dhii-dhi dhy dho dle dhe dhe
dha). Some speakers always say (dhi) or (dhy), for it is difficult to determine the precise sound. Others use (dhi), and even try to keep (dhi, dhii), before vowels only. In poetry this (dhi) becomes (dhu) or even (dh). Before consonants some endearour to use (dhe), but this gencrally results in (dhe) or (dha), and singers are usually taught to sing (dhəo), preciscly as if the word were written ther.
$I$ (or $\left.\partial^{\prime}\right)$. In received speech this word does not change in losing fores. Whichever of its rarious sounds a speaker chooses ( $1100, a^{\prime}$ ) for his normal pronunciation is presersed throughout.

уои (лии-ји, ји, ле). The (ле) is not recognized. After ( $t, d$ ) the ( $J$ ) often passes into (sh, zh), but this is also not recognized. Both are frequently heard nevertheless.
he (ніі - ні н $i \mathbf{i} i$ ). The (н), which includes ( $\mathrm{Hh}, \mathrm{h}$ ), according to the speaker's habits, is constantly lost when he is enelitic.
she (shii-shi sh $i \operatorname{sh}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ). The last is frequent in rapid conversation.
it (it). This does not seem to vary, except of course as $(-t)$ when conveuient, but eren this is rather ' poetical.'
we (vii-wi wi). The (w) is never lost.
they (dheej-dhe dhe), but not dcgenerating to (dhe).
have (Hæץ-hur vy v). The ( $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{Hh}$, h) is constantly onitted when the word is enclitic, and simple (v) occurs after a vowel.
will (wil-wel wl 1). The (l) is frequent after a vowel.
shall (shæl-shl shlh). The last form is frequent.
one (won-wen). The degradation into (en) is not received.
to (tuu-tu tute). Often extremely short. The pronunciation (too) may be heard from old people and Americans occasionally. The difference betwecn to too two is well shewn in such a sentence as: I gave two things to tuo men, and he gave tuo, too, to two, too ( ${ }^{\prime} i \cdot$ geer tuu thi:qz tetuu men, vurii-geev turrtun: tretur tua:).
be (bii-bi bi be). The last form is careless.
there (dhice' - dhe), before vowels (dhee'r dher dher).
" (ee'j-e ah $v$ ). 'Careful speakers' use (e) or (ah), but these sounds are quite theoretical; and (e) or (0) is the only usual sound. Before a vowel (an
zu). Before ( H ), beginning an unaccented syllable, it is now the fashion to write $a$, and I suppose to say (ee) or (ec’j), but I always use an, and say ( $e: n$ ) with a secondary accent, not omitting the following (ir), but rather gaining a fulerum for its introdnction, as an historical account, an harangue (æ:nнistorikel ckə'u'nt, æ:murreeq).
$m y$ (ma'i-mi), in myself', my lord, always (mi), but otherwise (mo ${ }^{\prime} i$ ) is constantly preserved pure, (mi) is Irish.
his (hizs, hiz-iz), the (н) commonly lost when enclitic.
our (a'u', a'u'r), preserved pure.
yой (лии', Јии'г-те, лег). Although (J®) is not unfrequent, it is not recognized.
her (нәә нәәr-v вr). The (н) is dropped constantly in he his him her.
their, treated as there.
of ( $\mathrm{\rho v}-\mathrm{\partial v} \mathrm{ev} \mathrm{e}$ ), the ( b ) is very common before consonants. Several old speakers still say (of).
would (wud-w'd d), the last after rowels.
should (shud-sh'd sh'd), the last not very unfrequent.
or (as ant or-a ar e re), the (r) only before a vowel; the (A) most common, but (e) not unfrequent before a consonant. Similarly for nor.
for (faa fast for-fa far fe fer) treated like or, but (fe fer) are very common.
that (dhæt-dhet dh't). The demonstrative pronoun is always distinet, the subordinating conjunction and relative are almost always obscure, as $I$ know that that that that man says is not that that that one told me (ainoo dh't dhæt dh'tdhæ't mæn sez iz-uot-dhie't dh'tahe'twon too'w'ldmi).
on (on), preserved clear.
do (duu-du du de), the last not so rare.
which (whitsh witsh—wh'tsh witsh).

Some speakers al ways preserve (whitsh), others always preserve (witsh).
who (nun- $\mathbf{1} u$ нu $u$ ), but (u) is rare.
by (ho'i), preserred pure, (bi) is hardly in use.
then (dhem - dhym dhem), the last not thought 'elegant.' The (em mm) forms are due to the old hem, and are common enough even from educated speakers, but usually disowned.
me (mii-mi mime), the last is, perhaps, Irish, common in (tuu me firm.nes widh me ) to me, from me, with me, etc.
were (wee', wee'r, wəa, waวr-we wer).
with (widh with-wi), generally preserved pure, (with) is heard from older speakers.
into (innte intuu- intu inte), unemphatically neither syllable receives force.
can (kæn-k'n kn), the last forms common.
camot (kæ•not, kaant), kept pure. from (from-frem), often kept pure. as (æzs $æ z-\mathrm{zz}$ z), (ez) common, (z) rare.
$u s$ ( $\mathrm{as}-\mathrm{vs}$ ), both common.
sir (səə, səәr-se), and after yes simply ( c ), as yes sir ( $\mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{s} \mathrm{s}$ ).
madan (mædm-mæm mem mim m 2 m mem m 'm m). After yes and no the syllable used by servant girls is (or was, for the use is declining) hard to seize. No ma'am is not at all (noo'wm), but nearer ( $n o m \backsim m$ ), the first ( $m$ ) being short, and the second introduced by a kind of internal decrease of force, which is seareely well represented by a slur, but I have no sign for it, and so to indicate the dissyllabic character I write helplessly (nom'm, je'sm'm). I have not succecded in uttering the sound except enclitically.

Numerous other peculiarities of modern pronunciation would require careful consideration in a full treatise, which must be passed over at present. The following comparison of Mr. Melville Bell's 'careful' system of unaccented rowels and my own 'colloquial' pronunciation will serve to show perhaps the extreme limits of 'educated' pronmeiation. Mr. Bell has divided his words in the usual way, forming an isolated or pada text. I have grouped mine as much as possible into those divisions which the native speaker naturally adopts, and which invariably so much puzzle the foreigner who has learned only from books. This grouping gives therefore a combined or sanhitio text. Mr. Bell's specimen is taken from
pp. 13 and 14 of his 'English Visible Speech' (no date, but subsequent to his larger work, which was published in 1867), as containing his latest vierss. In transliterating his symbols I retain (x) for his 'point-glide,' or glide from the rowel to his untrilled ( $r_{0}$ ), sce $(1098, b c)$. In diphthongs Mr. Bell's 'glides' are represented by ( $i, u$ ) connceted with a vowel bearing an acute accent, as (ái, iú). Mr. Bell's aspirate is represented by (nh), see ( $1133, b^{\prime}$ ). It should be remembered that ( $\tau$, , ज) are the capitals of $(c, 0)$, and $(: A,: E)$ of $(1, E)$; that ( $\cdot$ ) is the primary and (:) the secondary accent, both written immediately after the rowel in the accented syllable; and that in connected writing, marks of accent are not distinguished from marks of emphasis. In unconneeted writing, like Mr. Bell's, (•) prefixed marks emphasis. Mr. Bell does not write the accent when it falls on the first syllable of a word, and he writes it in other cases before the initial consonant of the accented syllable, according to his own syllabic theory; but in this transliteration the usual palaeotype customs are of course followed. Mr. Bell has not always been rery careful, as it appears to me, in marking quantities, but his quantities are here carefully reproduced. I hare not thought it necessary to give the usual spelling, as most of the sentences are very familiar.

## Melville Bell.

Miseléi•nís SE•nhtenhsyz, Provexbz, etsetrrah.
Ah laxdzh de ${ }^{\prime} r_{o} i$-fa.rm.
Ah fái' $r_{o} i$-temhpexd fello.
Whot ah fiu'roirs ternhpest.
Ah wái' $r_{0} i$-تhe'ad terr $r_{0}$ ib.

Ah glo' $r_{o} i$ ws rhar.vest-táim.
Na•mbexz ahnd o•bdzhekts.
Ah na *mbex ohr pi $i$ ktshuhtz.
Ko'inz wéits ahnd me'zhuh.tz.
Dhis $i z$ ahn ii $\quad z i$ buk t $u$ roiid.
Pliiz dóunht biit dhy dog.
Ah proy ti li thl góu•ld-finhtsh.
 menht.
Ah prk ohv plee iq ka.dz.
Ah kæpitahl káind ohy wa'tshdog.
Ah ve'ro $i$ piktiúhro ${ }_{o}$ 'sk óuld нháus.
What ah mahgn $i \cdot f i s e n h t$ pies ohv waxk.
O'uld pro ${ }^{\circ} \cdot$ verbz ahnd wáiz mæksimz.
:AA lweez thiqhk bifox su spiik.
Liist sed suu'nest mended.

Alex. J. Ellis.
Mi:sulee•nuəs Se•ntensez, Provabz, etsetere.
Olaa•d,zh dee'rifaa:m.

Who te fiuu ${ }^{2}$ ries te'mpest'.

Orii'riq sta bun do qki.
Ogloo'rizs наа•rystto $i: m$.
No mbez en $0 \cdot b d$ zheks.
Onə mberer p $i \cdot \mathrm{kt}$ shezs (pi kitiu'z, pi ${ }^{\prime}$ ktjh $u^{\prime} z s$ ).
Ko'inz wee'jts enme zhezs.
Dhi $\operatorname{siz}$ enii $\quad z i$ buk terii $\cdot d$.
Pliii $z d 0^{\prime}$ unt bii't dhido g.
() pri•tili:t'l goo'w ldfi:nt sh.

Dhiniúu:по'u*zez вграa•limynt.
Opæ•kv plee iqkaa:dzs.
$0^{\text {kxepitel ko'i }}$ ndev wo $t$, shdo:g.
Ore:ripik:t shere'sk $0 o^{\prime} w \mathrm{ld}$ пә'us. $^{\prime}$
Whote mrgni $i$ fisent pii ${ }^{\text {sey }}$ wook.
Oo'uld provebzs, enwo'i•z mæ•ksimzs.
: AA'lwez thiqk', bifoo'•Ju spiik'. Lii•st' sed, sulu'nyst' me'ndyd.

## Melfille Bell．

Fix God，onex dhy Kiq，ahnd duı dhæt dhaht iz roait．
Mæn propón＇zyz，bat God dis－ pón＇zyz．
Faast báind，faast fáind．
Wéist noht，wanht noht．
Liv ahnd let liv．
Ah bæed wax．kmahn kwo $\mathrm{r}_{0}$ elz widh rhiz tuulz．
Fromdz in niid a．s fro endz indii•d．
$\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{dll}$ suuth méiks nii$\cdot \mathrm{d} i$ éidzh．
Ah bláidh nhast méiks ah bluu•－ miq féis．
Betbi ah smasl fish dhahn ahn emhti dish．
Boordz ohy ah fe＇dhex flok tu－ gedher．
Be•tex bi ahlóu’u dhahn in bæd ka $\quad$ mhpahni．
What kaanht bi kiúad mast bi endiúa•d．
Bi slón tu pros＇mis，bat kwik tu perfor＇m．
Ko men senhs gróuz in adl ka•nhtroiz．
Tshix fuhlnes ahnd gudnéi•tiúh．x ax dhy ox＇nahmenhts oliv veor．tiú．
Konsii•liq fathts iz bat æ•diq tu dhem．
Kohmaa＇nd Judse＇lf if J ．$u$ d kohmaa nd w•dheız．
Poasivi＇•roahnhs koh＊qhketz anl diffikglhtiz．
Dái $\cdot y$ t kiúuz mox dhahn do•ktoh－ riq．
Dizoorv sekse＇s if $\mathrm{J} u$ wud kohmaa nd it．
Det iz dhy wast káind ohv porvati．
Dun what $u$ ast，kam what méi．
Wardz a．x liivz，diidz ar frount．
Duu dzha＇stis，lav moox•si， prorektis нhium $i \cdot l i t i$ ．
Dogz thaht bank móust báit liist．
Ii•vil kohmiúnikéi•shenz koh－ $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{f}$ pt gud mæ•neız．
：E．mhti reoselz méik dhy gréitest sáund．

Alex．J．Ellis．
Fii God，o：nedhek $i \cdot q$ ，enduu• dheretdhetiz＇ro＇it．
－Mren prepoo $\quad \mathrm{zyzs}$ ，b＇tGo•d d $i \cdot \mathrm{~s}-$ poo：zyz．
Faast＇ba＇ind＇，faast fo＇ind＇．
Wee sturt，wo ntnot．
$L i \cdot v$ ，enle $\cdot t^{\prime} l i v$ ．
Obæ•dwoo：kmen kworvelz widh－ iztun lzs．
Fre：nzinnii•d a＇fre：nzindii•d．

Oblo＇$i \cdot$ dhнaa：t meksebluu＇miq－ fee：s．
Be tere smaa Ifi：sh dhenene mti－ di $i$ sh．
Вəə•dzevefe：dhe flo•ktege：dhe．
Be•tereloo：n dheninbæ•d kə•m－ peni．
Whot kaa•ntbi kiúu＇d masbii． endiúu＇d．
Bisloo＇w tepro＇mis，b＇tkwi．k te－ pefan＇m．
Ko：mense•ns groo＇wzin $A A^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{lk} ə \cdot \mathrm{n}-$ trizs．
T，shiu＇fulnes engu＇dnee：t she vdhiAA $n$ nemynts ev voə t ，shu （vəo•tiú）．
Konsii $\cdot$ liq fasts $i \cdot z b^{\prime} t ~ æ \cdot d i q t e-$ dhym．
Krmaa＇nd $\quad$ u＇se•lf，ifлити•d （ $i \cdot$ fs $u d$ ）kemaa•nd $v \cdot d h e z s$.
Pәə：sivii＇rens koqkez＇asl difi－ keltizs．
－Da＇i ent kiun＇z moo＇•dhen do•k－ teriq．
Dizəə•v sokse•s ifsumudkrmaa＇nd－ $i t$ ．
De•tizdhi $i$ тəə•st＇ka＇$i$ ndev porveti．
Duu•whotsu＇ast，（duu＇wotshu －Aat）kom whotmee＇$j$ ．
－Woo•dzse liivzs，dii $\cdot d z s e$ fruut．
Duu d zho•stis，lov moә＇si，præ•k－
tis shumi $\dot{\text { liti }}$（sum $i \cdot \operatorname{liti}$ ）．
Dogz dlietbaa－k moost，bo＇it liist．
Ti•vl kemúu：nikee sh＇nz kero•pt gud mæ＇nez．
E．meti ve＇selz mee kdhe gree tyst so＇und．

## Melfille Bell.

Egzaa mhpll tii tshyz mór dhahn proii-sept.
Enderver fohis dhy best, alind provai $\cdot$ d ahga•nhist dhy wast.
:E•'roibohdiz bi'znes iz nóubohliz bi'znes.
Dhy bráiitest láit kaasts dhy dax kest sherdo.
Dhy fi.s ohe God iz thy biginiq ohe wizzlem.
 alnd flii tiq.
Gud wailz kost nathiq bat ax wa.th matsh.
Hhii dhaht giveth $t u$ dhy puis lenndeth tu dhy Loud.
Hhii da•bllz uhiz gift uh $u$ givz in táim.
Hhii thu sóuz broæ‘mbllz mast not gón be.r fut.
Hhóup loq difoox $\cdot$ méi $k$ keth dhy mha.t sik.
Hhii whe wanhts kohnte:nht kæ'noht fáind ahn ii-zi tshea.
Hhii dhaht nóuz nhimse lf 'best, istii mz nhimse lf liist.
:Hhóup iz groiifs best miún zik.
If wi du noht sebdiúu áu. pæ'shenz dhéi wil sebdiúu• ‘as.
In Juuth ahnd stro eqhth thiqhk ohy éilzh ahnd wii knes.
$I \mathrm{t}$ iz never tuu léit $\mathrm{t} u$ mend.
If $\quad u$ wish ah thiq dan, 'góu; if not, send.
Dzho kiúles slæ•nderz offn proulur si' $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ies $i$ 'ndzhuhro ${ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{z}$.
Kiip noht noa ka•ryt what $i z$ noht Јur。 óun.
Lái $\because \hat{q}$ iz dhy ráis ohe ah sléiv.
Loom tu liv æz Ju wud wish tu dái.
Me'dll noht widh thret whitsh kohnsoor nz Ju not.
Méik noht ah dzhest aht ahnadhere infenremitiz.
Matsh iz elsperlkted whe.. matsh $i \mathrm{z}$ givnn.
Men ni ah trouu wad $i z$ spóu $k y n$ in dzhest.

Alex. J. Ellis.
Egzaa mp'l tii't.shez moo'dhen prii sept.
Ende ve fudhebe'st, en prera'i.d ege nst' dhewวэ'st'.
Evribodiz bi znys iz noo badiz bi znys.
Dhebro' $i$ 'tyst lo'it kaa stsdhe daa $\mathrm{k} y$ st' shæ•do.
Dhific':rerGo•d $i$ :zdhibigin niqev $w i \cdot z d r m$.
:Asl aə thli tre'zhezs bree'n enflii•tiq.
Gud waədz kaist nə thiq botewəa th mət sh.
Hii-dhet givith tedhepuu'. le ndith tedhaLas'd.
-Hii do•b'lzs nizgi $\cdot \mathrm{ft}$ нug $i \cdot \mathrm{r}$, inta'im.
Hi'•иu sooz bræmblzs mə•sent goo' $w$ bee'fut'.
Hoo p-lo:qdifəod mee kithdhe наat sik".
Hii•нu wonts kenternt, kænctfo' $\hat{i}$ 'nd enii ${ }^{-} z i$ t, shee'.
Hii dhet noo'xz Himse'lf best', estii'mzs nimse lf 'liist‘.
Hoo piz griifs best' miúu'zik'.
Ifwiduu'not sobdiúu• a'u'pæ•shenzs •dhee'j' wilsəbdiúu 'os.
Insuu'th enstre q th the qkev

Itizne've 'tau lee'jt teme•nd.
Ifsumi'sh rthi'q don, 'goo'w; ifno t , send.
D. zho kizúle slaa•ndezs ${ }^{2} \cdot \mathrm{f}^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ pruur sí' rios $i \cdot n d$ zheriz.
Kii pnot nakoret whatizno•t тигоo' $w \cdot \mathrm{n}$.

Loon teli $\stackrel{\mathrm{r}}{ }$ вzлиw $u$ dwish tedo $i i$.
Me•d'lnot withathret whitsh kensэว'nz Ju nəət.
Mee knote d, zhest eteno dhez infor mitras.
Mot shiz ekspe•ktyd whe'motshiz gi v'n.
Me•nis truu woodiz spook'kin d, zhe'st.

# Melfille Bell． <br> Misfolntitionz au dhy di siplin ohr нhiúumæ’niti． <br> Alex．J．Ellis． <br> Misfa t shmes（misfa tioumzs） $a^{\prime}$ ：dhid $i$＇siplin Lovhumæ＇nit $i$ （ คглumæ•niti）． 

Na•thiq ou＇veakamz pe‘shen mo．t dhahn sái lenhs．
Nise＇siti iz dhy ma－dher，ohr invenhshen．

Nothiq oo：vekə mzs proshen moo＇dhen sa＇$\dot{i} \cdot \mathrm{lyn}$ ． Nise＇siti izdhema dher wrinve•n－ shen．

Comparison of Melitlle Bell＇s and Alex．J．Ellis＇s Pronunclations．
The Parable of the Prodigal Son，which has been already given in Anglo－Saxon p．534，Icelandic p．550，Gothic p．561，and Wycliffite English p．740，is now annexed for comparison，as transcribed from Mr．M．Bell＇s English Visible Speech，p．10，and as rendered by myself．Mr．Bell＇s is intended to represent a model pronunciation，and although the words are disjunct，they are meant to be read together，and the unemphatic monosyllables are treated by him accordingly，as（ah mhahd ahnd），which，under the emphasis，he would write（éi rhæd ænd）．My pronunciation is such as I should employ naturally if I had to read the passage to a large audience． The words connected in specch are connected by hyphens，instead of being run together as before，and the force is pointed out in each group．Mr．Bell had used hyphens to separate the syllables，but these are omitted in order not to employ hyphens in different senses in the two rersions．Accent and emphasis are written as before，see p．1168．Mr．Bell＇s glides are indicated by（ái áu x）as before，and his untrilled $\left(r_{0}\right)$ is thus marked．

## Parable of the Prodigal Son．Lute xy．11－32．

## Melfille Bell．

11．Ah sæortyn mæn mhahd tuu sanz：

12．ahnd dhy Jaq．ger。olhv dhem sed tu nhiz faa dhas： Faa dhen，giv mi dhy por shen ohr gudz dhaht fus leth $t u$ mi．式d mhi divái•ded an＇tu dhem nhiz liviq．

13．Fend not me•ni déiz aal f－ tex，dhy sarqgea san gerdhead asl tuge dhex，ahnd tuk hhiz dzhas ni $i$ ：nhtu alı fas ka nhtro $i$ ， ahnd dhex wéisted mhiz sab－ stahnhs widh $r_{0}$ ail etes $l i$－viq．

14．End，when whi mhahd spenht Asil，dher。ahróurz ah máiti farmin in dhæt lænd； ahnd nhi bige＇n tu bi in wanht．

Alex．J．Ellis．
11．O－səə‘tyn mæn Hed－tuu sənz：

12．On－dhr－Jə qger－ev dhym sed tu－iz－faa•dhe，Faa•dhre，giv－ mi－dhe poo＇shen－er－gudz dhet－ fas leth tu－mii．． $\operatorname{\text {Endni－}}$ divo＇$i \cdot d e d$ o ntu－dhem niz－li $\cdot$ viq．

13．Ond－no t me ni deez aa ftr， dhe－sorqge son gre dhed asl tuge dhre，en－tuk－iz dzhoə ni intu－r－faa ko ntri，men－dhee＇ wee sted－iz sa bstms widh－ rə＇

14．（）n－whe＇n mi－bd－spe＇nt －anl，dher－wroo ${ }^{\circ}$ z－moiti fremin in－lhæ•t læud，en－ni－higæ•n t $u$－lij－in－wənt．

## Melville Bell.

15. Ahnd whi wenht almed dzho'ind uhimse lf $\mathrm{t} u$ ah sitizen ohy dhet kanh $\cdot \operatorname{tr}_{0} i$, alnd uhi senht nhim $i$ 'nht $u$ nhiz fiildz $t u$ fiid swáin.
16. Ahnd 'uhii wud féin nhahr fild uhiz be:li widh dhy mhasks dhaht dhy swain did iit : ahnd nóu mæn géiv anh•tu uhim.
17. And, when mhi kéim t $u$ nhimse lf, mhi sed, Hháu meni nháixd son.l•rahnhts ohe $\mathrm{m} i$ faa dhexz nhæe broed inaf ahnd t $u$ spex, ahnd ái perish widh uha'qges.
18. A'i wil ahr cái z ahnd góu tue mi faa dhex, rend wil séi a nht $u$ nhim, Fua*dher, ái mhahr sind ahge nhst mhernn, ænd bifor• dhii,
19. ahnd æm nóu mor wax $\cdot d h i$ t $u$ bi katd dhái san: méik mi ahz wan ohr dhái mháixd soor rahuhts.
20. End mhi ahr su'z, ahnd kéim tu rhiz faadhua. Bat, when hhi waz Jet ah groéit wéi - of, mhiz faa'dher sus nhim, ahnd nhæed lohmpæ•shen, ahnd $r_{0} æ n$, ahnd fll ohn mhiz nek, ahnd -kist mhim.
21. Ahnd dhy san sed anhtu nhim, Faa dhex, ái mhahr sind, ahge'nhst Hhe'rmu, ænd in •dhái sáit, ahnd æm nóu mox 'Tax $\cdot d h i$ t $u$ bi kald dhái ssn.
22. Bat dhy faa dher sed tue nhiz soor-rahnhts, Briq fouth thy best roub, ahnd put it on thim ; ænd put ah roiq ohn nhiz nhænd, ahnd shumz ohn mhiz fiit.
23. Ahnd briq uhi $i$ dhe. dhy forted kaaf, ahnd kil it, ahnd let as iit ahnd bi ne•ri.
24. For dhis máí san woz ded, ahnd $i z$ ahlái $\cdot$ vahgen; nhi woz lost, alnd iz fámed. Ahnd dhe bige n tu bi merri.

## Alex. J. Ellis.

15. On-i-we'nt en-dzho'ind nimse -lf tu-r-si'tizen bv-dhe't $\mathrm{k} \cdot \mathrm{ntri}, \quad \mathrm{m}-i$-se•nt-im $i$ ntu-izfiildz tu-fii'd swo'in.
16. סn-i-wud-fee•n ev-fi $\cdot$ ld $i z-$ be- $1 i$ widh-dhe-Ho sks dhet-dhesाroin did-ii t:m-noo-mæn geev-ontu-нim.
17. On-when-i-kee m tu-imself,
 er-mi-faa dhez ev-bre•d-inof ent $u$-spee', un-a'i. perrish widhнә qбя.
18. 凡' $\boldsymbol{i}$-wil ero' i z en-goo tu-mi-faa-dher, en-wil-see'j. ontu$\mathrm{n} i \cdot \mathrm{~m}, \quad$ Faa $\cdot d h e r, \quad a^{\prime} i$-br-si $\cdot \mathrm{nd}$ rge 'nst me'r'n en-bifoo' $\cdot$-dhii',
19. щn-8m-noo moo' wәə•dh $i$ tu bi katd dha' $i$-sa'n : mee k -m $i$

20. On-i-eroo'z en-kee'm tu$i z$-faa dhe. Bat-whe'n-i-wez-se't -g-gree'j't wee -วəf, wiz-faa•dhe sad-1im, en-нrd kempreshe n, en-re'n, en-fe•l on-iz-ne•k, धn$\mathrm{k} i$ st nim.
 Faadher, ai-br-si'nd vge'nst не•'л, en-in-dho' $i$. sa'it, en-emnoo' moo' wәə dhi t $u$-bi-kas ld dho $i$-son.
21. Bot-dhe-faa dhe sed tu-izsวə•rents, Briq foo'th dhe-be-st roob, en-put-it-o•n-Him, rn-put e-ri'q on-iz-næ•nd, vn-shuu $z$ on-iz-fii•t.
22. (On-bri:q mi $\cdot$ dhe the-fxeted kaat, $\mathrm{mn}-\mathrm{k} i \cdot \mathrm{l}-\mathrm{it}$, vn -le $\cdot \mathrm{t}$-us iit vn-bi-me $\cdot 1 i$.
23. Fi-dhi ${ }^{\text {s }}$ mo' $i$-son wezded, en-iz-vln' $i$ т uge n, пii-wvzloo st, en-iz-fo'und. On-dhebigæ n tu-bi-me ri.

## Melfille Bell.

25. Náu hhiz elldex san woz in dhy fiild, ahnd, æz \#hi kéim ahnd drouu nái tu dhy mháus, nhi $\quad$ Hhoord miúu zik ahnd dæ.nhsiq.
26. End hhi kald wan ohv dhy seor. $\cdot$ rahuhts, ahnd aaskt what dhiiz thiqz menht.
27. Ahnd rhi sed a•nhte nhim, Dhái brådhero iz kam; ahnd dhái faa dhex rhahz kild dhy fæ'ted kaaf, bikas'z Hhi нahth $r_{0}$ isii• $\cdot \mathrm{d}$ mim séif ahud sáund.
28. Ahnd mhi woz æ'qgrii, ahnd wed noht góu in : dhao.' foh.t kéim rhiz faddhero áut, ahnd entroii'ted mhim.
29. Ahnd Hhii, aa $\cdot n h s \mathrm{rr}_{0} \mathrm{i} \mathrm{q}$, sed tu nhiz faa dher, Lóu, dhiiz $m a \cdot n i$ jiitz d $u$ ái saodv dhi, nii•dhex trahnhsgr ${ }^{\text {E }}$ 'stái aht E*n $i$ táim dhái kohmaa udmenht: ahnd jet dhóu nerver géi•vest mii ah lkid, dhaht ái máit méik $\mathrm{mer}_{0} i$ widh mi fromdz :
30. bat ahz suun ahz dhis dhái san woz kam, whitsh Hhahth diváux d dhái liviq widh hax.lets, dháu nhahst kild fohw rhim dhy fe'ted lkaaf.
31. Ahnd nhi sed a*nht $u$ nhim San, dháu axt erex widh mi, ahnd asl dhaht ái mhæv $i z$ dháin.
32. It woz miit đhaht wi shud méik merro ${ }^{i}$, ahnd be glæd: fohs dhis dhái br ox dhex woz ded, ahnd $i z$ ahlái $\cdot v$ ahge:n, ænd woz lost ahnd $i z$ fáund.

## Alex. J. Ellis.

25. Náu-iz e lde sən wez-in dhe-fï ld , ænd ez- $i$-kee'm 飞п druu na' $i$ t $u$-dhe-нә' $u$ 's, н $i$-нәә $\cdot \mathrm{d}$ miúu'zik en-daa'nsiq.
 səə•vnts, mu-aa•skt what dhiiz thiqz ment.
26. $\mathrm{O}^{\mathrm{n}}-i-\mathrm{se} \cdot \mathrm{d}-\partial \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{tu}-\mathrm{Him}$, Dha' $i$ bra'dher iz-kə m, eu-dha' $i$ faa•dher ez-kild dhe-fæ•ted kaaf, bikaa'z-i Hæth risii'rd Him seef en-sว่u-nd.
27. $\mathrm{On}-i-$-w -not goo in : dhee'fa keem нizfaa dher ${ }^{\prime}$ ' $u$ t, en-entrii'tid-Him.
28. ©n-•Hii, aa'nscriq. sed tu$i$ z-faa'dhe, Loo'w, dhiiz-me'n $i$ งii'z d $u$-ə'i-səə•v-dhi, n ${ }^{\prime} i \cdot d h e$ trænsgre st ai et-e $1 i i^{\prime}$ ta' $i m$ dha' $i$ kemaa $n d m y n t$; en-Je't dha'u ne•ve gee'ryst 'mii e--kid, dhet a'i-ma'it-meek-me'ri widh-mifre'ndz:
29. bat ez-suun-rz dhis dha' $i$ sə'n wez-kə'm, whitsh-ethdiva' $u$ 'd dha'i-li $\cdot$ viq widh--наа•lets, dha' $u$-rst kild fa 'mim dhe-fæ'ted kaaf.
 dha' $u$-'t evere-widh-mi, en-*al dhet-ə' $i$-Hæ•v-iz-dha' $i n$.
30. It-wez-miit dhet-w $i$-shed-meek-me $\cdot \mathrm{ri}$ en-bi-glæ•d, $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{A}}-\mathrm{dh} i \cdot \mathrm{~s}$ dha' $i$ bre•dhe wez-de•d, en-iz elai•v ege n, en-wez-loo'st en-izfa' $u$ 'nd.

## English Spelling, Past and Possible.

It is impossible to pass over these specimens of pronunciation without comparing them with orthography, in the spirit of the remarks in Chap. VI., pp. 606-632. Hence I annex the same passage in four different practical orthographies of the xruth and xix th centuries.

First, after "Barker's Bible," 1611, the date of the Authorized Version, shemring the orthography in which it was presented to the English public.

The full title of this edition is: Mirn: | The | HOLY | BIBLE, | Conteyning the Old Tefta- | ment, and the New: 1 Newly tranflated out of 1 the Originall Tongues: and with \| the former Tranfations diligently I compared and reuised, by his / Maieftics Speciall Com- 1 mandement. I I $A p$ pointed to be read $m$ Churehes. I T IMPRINTED ! at London by Robert | Barker, Printer to the | Kings
> moft Excellent | Maieftie.| Anno Dom. 1611. | Cum Priuilegio.

> Large folio, for placing on reading desks in churches. Text in black letter; Chapter headings in Roman type. Supplied words (now usually put in Italies) not distinguished. Pressmark at British Museum (on 11th October, 1873, the date is mentioned, as altcrations occasionally occur in these press-marks) $\frac{1276, l, 4}{1-2}$.

Secondly, in "Glossic," the improved form of Glossotspe (given on pp. 15, 614), which I presented to the Philological Society on 20 May, 1870, or about a year after Chap. VI. was in type. This paper on "Glossic" is printed in the Philological Transactions for 1870 , pp. 89-118, entirely in the Glossic orthography. It is further explained and extended on pp . xiii-xx of the Notice prefixed to the Third Part of the present work, published 13 February, 1871. The principal object which I had in view, was the writing the pronunciation of all English dialects approximatively by one system of spelling founded upon ordinary usages, and for that purpose it will possibly be extensively employed by the English Dialect Society, which the Rev. W. W. Skeat started in May, 1873. What is required for this purpose is more fully considered in § 2, No. 5, and is exemplified in § 2, No. 10. Glossic was further explained before the College of Preceptors (see Educational Times for May, 1870), and the Society of Arts (see their Journal for 22 April, 1870), as a system by which instruction might be adrantageously given in teaching children to read, and as a means of avoiding the "spelling difficulty," because writing according to this system, whatever the pronunciation indicated, would be perfectly legible, without previous instruction, to all who could read in our ordinary orthography. This, together with completeness and typographical facility, was the aim of the alterations introduced subsequently to the printing of Chap. VI.

As at present presented, there are only three glossic groups of letters, uo, $d h, z h$, with which a reader is not familiar, and of these $d h, z h$, bave long been uscd by writers on pronunciation. The first, $u$, has becn employed for
short oo in wood, ou in would, o in woman, and $u$ in $\mathrm{p} u t$, as suggesting all the four forms, oo, ou, $o u$, by a combination, uo, which had no other associations in English. The glossic combinations are, then, the Italic letters in:

> beet bait baa caul coal cool knit net gnat not nut fuot (for foot) height foil fool feud -yea way whey - hay pea bee, toc doe, chest jest, kecp gape,$f$ ie vie, thin dhen (for then), seal zeal, rush rouzhe (for rouge), ring lay, may nay sing-
peer pair soar poor, pecring pairring soarring moorringdeter deterring, star starry, abhor abhorring.

The spelling is not perfect, and, for convenience, combinations rather than separate letters have definite sounds. Thus $u$ in nut has one sound, but the combinations $u 0, o u, e u$, have no trace of this sound. Similarly for $h, t h, d h$, $s h, z h, c h$, the last combination being indispensable in English. Alsor has two senses, according as it comes before a vowel or not, and when it follows ee, $a i, o a, o o$, it forms the diphthongs in peer pair soar poor, and heuce must be doubled in peerring pairring soarring moorring, the first $r$ forming part of the combination, and the second the trill, $=$ (pit'riq pee'riq soo'riq pui'riq). The (x) sounds, as (әә, e) with permissible (r) following, are uniformly written $e r$, when not before a vowel, the $r$ being then untrilled; but as er before a vowel would trill the $r$, it is necessary to write err in this case, thus ering $=(e \cdot r i q)$, but deterring $=($ ditar $\cdot \mathrm{riq})$. In the case of $a r$, or, I used aar, aur, in the papers cited, but I believe it more consonant with usual habits to employ the same principle of combinational use, and to write star starri abhor abhorring = (staa staari æbнas' æbнaAriq). This, however, has again the very serious disadvantage of employing two signs ar $a a^{\circ}$, or or $a u^{\circ}$, for the same sound (aa) or (AA). The whole use of $r$, in any practical system of spelling, must be a system of compromises. When the trilled $r$ has to be especially noted in unnsual places, as in Scotch or provincial pronunciation, $r^{*}$ must be employed, and this sign may be of course always used. The untrilled $r$ should never be used where it may not be followed by a trilled $r$. If we write soar, it is implied that either (soo') or (seo'r) may be said. Hence it may not be used for the provincial sound of (soo') or (sór) $=$ so. The obscure unaccented or unemphatic syllables present another difficulty. As all the ( $\mathbf{\varepsilon}$, әә) somuds, where (er, әәr) may be sounded, are sunk into er, I think it best to sink all the (el, em, en) sounds into $\mathrm{el}, \mathrm{em}, \mathrm{en}$. But those (e) sonnds where (r) may not be sounded, I write $a$ at present, though $u$ wonld be perhaps better, if it did not unfortunately snggest (in). Hence the provincial ( 00 , sóx) may be written soa-a, soul-u, or, withont a hyphen, soan, soan, on the principle that when several letters come together which might be read as different groups, the two first
must be read together, and not the two last; thus soaa=soa-a, and not so-aa. Or, as is best, soak', the $h$ indicating this sound when forming a diphthong with the preceding letter. This $h^{\prime}$ replacing (') forms a very important sign in dialectal glossic, and it ought really to replace untrilled $r$ in ordinary glossic spelling. But at present habits are too fixed for such an innovation.

It becomes, therefore, necessary to mark accent and emphasis in every word. Hence I use (.) for accent, whenever the force does not fall on the first syllable, so that the absence of such mark indicates the stress on the first syllable. This mark is put after a vowel when long, after a diphthong (and hence after the untrilled $r$ in $e$ er. - etc.), and after the first consonant following a short vowel. It thus becomes a mark of length, and may be inserted in all accented syllables when it is important to mark the length,一as, in dialects, to distinguish the short sound of $a a$ in kaat. hand. $=($ kat наd $)$ and not (kaat наad), which would be written kaa•t haa $\cdot d$, and are really the sounds heard when kart hard are written with the untrilled $r$; of course not the sounds of kar't, har'd, which =(kært, нærd). In received English the marking of quantity is not of much consequence, accented $e \epsilon, a i, a a, a u, o a, o o$, being received as long, and $i, e, a, o, u, u o$, as short; and hence the omission of the accent mark is possible. Similarly, when $e l$, em, $e n$, are not obscured, write $e l^{\prime}, e m \cdot, e n$.

Emphatic monosyllables have (•) preceding, as dhat dhat dhat man sed, 'too too wun, ei $\cdot e i$ eu. The obscure unemphatic form has not been given, except in $a, d h i$ for the articles. How far the use of sach changing forms is practicable in writing cannot be determined at present. Phonetic spellers gencrally preserve the clear forms, just as children are taught to read ai man and ai dog, dhee wuom-an sau dhee,$=($ ee mæn ænd $e e$ dog, dhii w $u$ meen sas dhii), instead of (emæ'n rneds'g, dhewum en saa dhiz). All these points are niceties which the ronch usage of every-day life would neglect, but which the proposer of a system of spelling, founded in any degree on pronunciation, has to bear in miud. As pointed out before ( $630, b c$ ), even extremely differcht usages would not impair lcgibility.

Thirdly, Mr. Danby P. Fry has, at my request, furmished me with a transcription of the same passage into that improved system of English spelling which forms the subject of his paper in the Philological Transactions for $1870, \mathrm{pp} .17-88$, to which I must refer for a detailed account of the principles upon which it is constructed. The following abstract has been furnished by Mr. Fry in his own orthography.

## Explanatory Notes.

Words derived directly from Latin, Greek, or Hebrew, rightly follow dhe etymological spelling. In such words, dhe question iz not az to dhe orthography, but az to dhe pronunciation.

Words borrowed from livving tungs cum into English in dheir nativ dress, and continue to wear it until dhey ar naturalized.

In menny English words, in which dhe spelling differs from dhe pronunciation, dhe preliminary question arizes, which shuld be altered,-dhe spelling or dhe pronunciation? In dhe following specimen dhis question iz raized raaduer dhan determined. Dhe italics suggest it in certain words. Ought not dhe correct, which iz stil dhe provincial pronunciation to be restored to such words az one, two, answer, son? Az to dhe laast, compare dhe English widh dhe German :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { dhe son } & \text { der sohn } \\
\text { dhe sun } & \text { die sonne. }
\end{array}
$$

Widh respect to $a a$, menny persons say ans'er, dancing, last, insted ov aans'er, daancing, laast ; while dhe provincial prounciation ov faadher iz faidher.

Dhe digraph $d h$ iz uzed for dhe flat sound ov th, az in then; for az thiz to $t$, so iz $d h$ to $d$; e.g. tin, thin ; den, dhen. A new letter iz needed for dhe sound ov $n g$ in long; and dhe want ov it necessitates dhe clumzy-looking combination $n g g$ for dhe sound herd in longger. Dhe smanl capital u denotes dhe short sound ov oo, az in good (gud); dhe long sound, az in food, being expressed by oo.

Dhe general rule in English spelling, dhat a monosyllabel shal not end widh a double (or dubbel) consonant, iz made
universal. Hence, fel, nek, insted ov fell, neck. Dhe letter $v$ iz delt widh like enny udher consonant; so dhat it iz dubbeled where enny udher consonant wuld be dubbeled, and iz allowed to end a word, widhout being followed by a servile or silent $e$; az hav, havving; liv, livving. Dhe rules which ar followed in vowel-spelling wil be obvious on inspection: dhus, for exampel, it wil be seen dhat a long vowel iz denoted by a digraph, and a short vowel by a singul letter, in a monosyllabel; and dhat in an accented syllabel, where dhe vowel iz short, dhe following consonant iz dubbeled, but not where it iz long. An aspirate digraph servs dhe same purpose az a dubbeled consonant in dhis respect. Where, howerver, in dhe present spelling, dhe servile $e$ iz uzed to denote a long vowel, dhat practice iz not altered ; az, arize, aroze.

Dhe flat consonants ar generally indicated, not only in $d h$ for th (gadher for gather), but in $v$ for $f(o v$ for of ), and in $z$ for $s$ ( $a z$ for as; $i z$ for $i s$ ); but no variation iz made in inflexions, so dhat $s$ remains unaltered in words like has, his, years.

Dhe digraph $g h$ iz retained, when it iz not preceded by $u$, az in might; but when it iz preceded by $u$ widh dhe sound ov $f, g h$ iz omitted, and dhe present pronunciation iz expressed, az in enuf. Generally, etymological silent consonants ar retained when dheir silence can be determined by "rules or position."

No attempt iz made to denote accent, except in dhe instance or dubbling dhe consonant after an accented short vowel.

Fourthly, Mr. E. Jones, whose efforts to improve our orthography are mentioned above (p. 590, note 1, and p. 591, note 2), and also in my paper on Glossic (Philol. Trans. p. 105, note 3, and text, p. 106), has been good enough to transeribe the same passage in the orthography which he at present recommends. I gladly give insertion to the following condensed statement of "principles' furnished by himself.

## Analogic Spelling by E. Jones.

Object. -To reduce the difficulties of spelling to a minimum, with the least possible deviation from the current orthography.

Uses.-1. Immediate. To assist children, ignorant aduits, and foreigners, in learning to read books in the present spelling; and also for writing purposes by the same, concurrently with the present system.
2. Ultimate. To supersede, gradually, as the public may feel disposed, the present spelling.

Means.-Allow books in the Revised Spelling to be used in the National Schools, which would serve the double purpose of being the best means of teaching reading to children, and also of familiarising the rising generation with the appearance of the new spelling, in the same manner as the Metric System is now exhibited in the National Schools.

## General Notes.

1. It is assumed that the object of spelling, or writing, is to express by letters, the sounds of words.
2. In order to disarm prejudice, and to facilitate the transition from the new spelling to the old in reading, it is desirable to make the difference between the one and the other as little as possible.
3. To do this the following general principle will serve as a safe guide.

Use every letter, and combination of letters, in their most common power in the present spelling.

The adoption of this rule settles clearly the point as between the retention of ' c ' and ' k ' for the bard guttural sound. ' C ' in its hard sound occurs about twelve times as often as ' $k$ ' for the same sound, and six times as often as ' $k$,' ' $q$,' and ' $x$ ' together. In the following alphabet, therefore, ' $k$,' ' $q$ ', and ' $x$ ' are rejected, and ' $\mathbf{c}$ ' is called cay.

Again, in a still more decided proportiou, the question as to the use of the digraph "th," for the hard or the flat sound in this and thin, is settled by the fact that "th" represents the flat sound about twenty times as often as the sharp sound. "Th" as in thin is indicated by Italics.

The long $a \hbar$ as in "alms" and $u$ in "put" are the only vowels for which no provision is made in the common mode of representing the vowel-sounds at present. These sounds however occur very rarely and in very few words, they are marked respectively thus: alms= âmz, put $=$ pùt.

## The Alphabet.

$\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7\end{array}$ a, $\hat{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{ai}, \mathrm{au}, \quad \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$, ch, mat, alms, maid, laud, bed, cat, chip,

| 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| d, | e, | ee, | f, | g, | h, | i, | ie, |
| dog, | met, | meet, fan, | go, hay, | pin, | pies, |  |  |


| 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | j, l, m, n, ng, o, oe, oi, jet, lad, mat, nut, sing, not, foes, oil,


| 24 | 25 | 26 | $27 \quad 28$ | 29 | 30 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oo, food, | ou, out, | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{p}, \\ & \text { pen, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { r, } \quad \text { s, } \\ & \text { run, } \\ & \text { sit, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sh, } \\ & \text { ship, } \end{aligned}$ | $a,$ |
| 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 |
| th, then, | th, | $\mathrm{u},$ tun, | ue, bues, | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathbf{u},} \\ & \text { büll, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { v, } \\ & \text { van, } \end{aligned}$ |
| 37 | 38 |  | 39 | 40 |  |
| w, war |  |  | zeal, |  |  |

Note.-At the end of words $y$ unaccented $=i$, and accented $y=i e$. Also at the end of words $o w=o u$ and $a v=a u$. This simple rule obviates the changing of thousands of the most common words. The little words, 'be,' 'me'; ' go,' ' no,' etc., are used for the theoretical, 'bee,' 'mee'; ' goe,' 'noe.'

## Pronenciation.

As the pronunciation varies considerably even among educated people, the rule is followed here of inclining to the pronunciation indicated by the present speling, and no attempt is made at extreme refinements of pronunciation. The proportion of words changed in spelling, in the example given below, is about 1 in 3 , or say 30 per cent. Children might be taught on this plan to read in a fer lessons, and the transition to the present spelling would be very easy.

Parable of the Prodigal Son, Luke xy. 11-32.

Barker's Bible, 1611.
11. A certaine man had two fonnes:
12. And the yonger of them faid to his father, Father, giue me the portion of goods that falleth to me. And he diuided vnto them his liuing.
13. And not many dayes after, the youger fonne gathered all together, and took his iourney into a farre countrey, and there wafted his subftance with riotous liuing.
14. And when he had fpent all, there arofe a mighty famine in that land, and he began to be in want.
15. And he went and ioyned himfelfe to a citizen of that countrey, and he fent him into his fields to feed fwine.
16. And he would faine haue filled his belly with the hufkes that the fwine did eate: and no man gaue vnto him.
17. And when hee came to himfelfe, hee faid, How many hired feruants of my fathers haue bread ynough and to fpare, and I perifh with hunger?
18. I will arife and goe to my father, and will fay vnto him, Father, I haue finned againft heauen and before thee.
19. And am no more worthy to bee called thy fonne: make me as one of thy hired feruants.
20. And he arofe and came to his father. But when hee was yet a great way off, his father faw him, and had compalfion, and ranne, and fell on his necke, and kisfed him.
21. And the fonne faid vnto him, Father, I haue finned againft heauen, and in thy fight, and am no more worthy to be called thy fomme.

Glossic Orthograpiy.
11. A serten man had too sunz:
12. And dhi yungger ov dhem sed too hiz faadher, Faadher, giv mee dhi poarshen or guodz dhat fauleth too mee. And hee direi $\cdot$ ded untoo dhem hiz living.
13. And not meni daiz aafter, dhi fungger sun gadherd aul toogedher, and tuok hiz jurni intoo a far kuntri, and dhair waisted hiz substans widh reiutus living.
14. And when hee had spent aul, dhair aroa ${ }^{z}$ a meiti famin in dhat land, and hee bigan• too bee in wont.
15. And hee went and joind himse'lf too a sitizen ov dhat kuntri, and hee sent him intoo hiz feeldz too feed swein.
16. And hee wuod fain hav fild hiz beli widh dhi husks dhat dhi swein did eet : and noa man graiv untoo him.
17. And when hee kaim too himse'lf, hee sed, Hou meni heird servents or mei faadherz har bred enu•f and too spair, and ei perish widh hungger!
18. Ei wil arei $\cdot z$, and goa too mei faadher, and wil sai untoo him, Faadher, ei har sind agen'st hern and bifoar dhee,
19. And am noa moar werdhi too bee kauld dhei sun: maik mee az wun ov dhei heird servents.
20. And hee aroa' $z$ and kaim too hiz faadher. But when hee woz yet a grait wai of, hiz faadher sau him, and had liompa•shun, and ran, and fel on hiz nek, and kist him.
21. And dhi sun sed untoo him, Faadher, ei har sind age•nst hern, and in dhei seit, and am noa moar werdhi too bee kauld dhei sun.

## Parable of the Prodigal Son, Luke xp. 11-32.

Danby P. Fry.
11. And he said, A certain man had two sons:
12. And the yungger ov dhem said to his faadher, Faadher, giv me dhe portion or gods dhat fauleth to me. And he divided unto dhem his lirving.
13. And not menny days after dhe yungger son gadhered aul togedher, and tuk his jurny into a far cuntry, and dhere waisted his substance widh riotous livving.
14. And when he had spent aul, dhere aroze a mighty fammin in dhat land; and he began to be in want.
15. And he went and joined himself to a cittizen or dhat cuntry; and he sent him into his feelds to feed swine.
16. And he wuld fain hav filled his belly widh dhe husks dhat dhe swine did eat: and no man gave unto him.
17. And when he came to himself, he said, How menny hired servants or my faadher's hav bred enuf and to spare, and I perrish widh hungger!
18. I wil arize and go to my faadher, and wil say unto him, Faadher, I hav sinned against herven, and before dhee,
19. And am no more wordhy to be cauled dhy son: make me az one ov dhy hired ser ${ }^{4}$ vants.
20. And he aroze, and came to his faadher. But when he waz yet a grait way off, his faadher saw him, and had compassion, and ran, and fel on his nek, and kissed him.
21. And dhe son said unto him, Faadher, I hav sinned against hevren and in dhy sight, and am no more wordhy to be cauled dhy son.
E. Jones.
11. And he said, A sertain man had too sunz :
12. And the yunger ov them said to hiz father, Father, giv me the porshon ov goodz that fauleth to me. And he divieded unto them hiz living.
13. And not meny daiz after the yunger sun gatherd aul together, and tooe hiz jurny into a far cuntry, and thair waisted hiz substans with rieotus living.
14. And when he had spent aul, thair aroez a miety famin in that land; and he began to be in wont.
15. And he went and joind himself to a sitizen ov that cuntry; and he sent him into hiz feeldz to feed swien.
16. And he wid fain hav fild hiz bely with the huses that the swien did eet: and no man gaiv unto him.
17. And when he caim to himself, he said, How meny hierd servants ov my father'z hav bred enuf and to spair, and I perish with hunger !
18. I wil ariez and go to my father, and wil say unto him, Father, I hav sind against heven and befoer thee,
19. And am no moer wurthy to be cauld thy sun : maic me az won ov thy hierd servants.
20. And he aroez, and caim to hiz father. But when he woz jet a grait way of, hiz father saw him, and had compashon, and ran, and fel on hiz nee, and cist him.
21. And the sun said unto him, Father, I hav sind against heven, and in thy siet, and am no moer wurthy to be cauld thy sun.

## Barker's Bible, 1611.

22. But the father faid to his feruants, Bring foorth the beft robe, and put it on him, and put a ring on his hand, and fhooes on his feet.
23. And bring hither the fatted ealfe, and kill it, and let vs eate and be merry.
24. For this my fonne was dead, and is aliue againe; he was loft, $\&$ is found. And they began to be merry.
25. Now his elder fonne was in the field, and as he eame and drew nigh to the houfe, he heard muficke \& dauneing,
26. And he ealled one of the feruants, and afked what thefe things meant.
27. And he faid rnto him Thy brother is come, and thy father hath killed the fatted calfe, becaufe he hath receiued him fafe and found.
28. And he was angry, and would not goe in : therefore came his father out, and intreated him.
29. And he anfwering faid to his father, Loe, thefe many yeeres doe I ferue thee, neither tranfgreffed I at any time thy commandement, and yet thou neuer gaueft me a kidde, that I might make merry with my friends:
30. But as foone as this thy fonne was come, which hath deuoured thy lining with harlots, thou haft killed for him the fatted calfe.
31. And he faid vnto him, Sonne, thou art euer with mee, and all that I haue is thine.
32. It was meete that wee fhould make merry, and bee glad; for this thy brother was dead, and is aliue againe; and was loft, and is found.

Glozsic Orthography.
22. But dhi faadher sed too hiz servents, Bring foarth dhi best roab, and puot it on him, and puot a ring on hiz hand, and shooz on hiz feet.
23. And bring hidher dhi fated kaaf, and kil it, and let us eet and bee meri.
24. For this mei sun woz ded, and iz alei $\cdot$ agen $\cdot$, hee woz lost, and iz found. And dhai bigan• too bee meri.
25. Now hiz elder sun woz in dhi feeld, and az hee kaim and droo nei too dhi hous, hee herd meuzik and daansing.
26. And hee kauld wun ov dhi servents and aaskt whot dheez thingz ment.
27. And hee sed untoo him, Dhei brudher iz kum, and dhei faadher hath kild dhi fated kaaf, bikau'z hee hath risee'vd him saif and sound.
28. And hee woz anggri, and wuod not goa in: dhairfoar kaim hiz faadher out, and entree'ted him.
29. And hee aanswering sed too hiz faadher, Loa dheez meni yeerz doo ei serv thee, neidher transgre'st ei at eni teim dhei komaa ndment; and yet dhou never gaivest mee a kid, dhat ei meit maik meri widh mei frendz:
30. But az soon az dhis dhei sun woz kum, which hath divourd dhei living widh haarluts, thou hast kild for him dhi fated kaaf.
31. And hee sed untoo him, Sun, dhou art ever widh mee, and aul that ei hav iz dhein.
32. It woz meet dhat wee shuod maik meri and bee glad, for dhis dhei brudher woz ded, and iz alei'v agen, and woz lost, and iz found.

## Danby P. Fry.

22. But dhe faadher said to his servants, Bring forth dhe best robe, and pot it ou him; and pot a ring on his hand, and shoos on his feet:
23. And bring hidher dhe fatted caalf, and kil it: and let us eat and be merry:
24. For this my son waz ded, and iz alive again; he waz lost, and iz found. And dhey began to be merry.
25. Now his elder son waz in dhe feeld: and az he came and drew nigh to dhe hous, he herd music and daansing.
26. And he cauled one ov the servants, and aasked what dheze things ment.
27. And he said unto him, Dhy brudher iz cum ; and dhy faadher hath killed dhe fatted caalf, because he hath receeved him safe and sound.
28. And he waz anggry, and wold not go in: dherefore came his faadher out, and entreated him.
29. And he aanswering said to his faadher, Lo, dheze menny years doo I serv dhee, neidher transgressed I at enny time dhy commandment : and yet dhow nerrer gavest me a kid, that I might make merry widh my frends:
30. But az soon az this dhy son waz cum, which hath devoured dhy livving widh harlots, dhow hast killed for him dhe fatted caalf.
31. And he said unto him, Son, dhow art evver widh me, and aul dhat I hav iz dhine.
32. It waz meet dhat we shuld make merry, and be glad: for dhis dhy brudher waz ded, and iz alive again; and waz lost, and iz found.

## E. Jones.

22. But the father said to hiz servants, Bring forth the best roeb, and puit it on him; and put a ring on hiz hand, and shooz on hiz feet:
23. And bring hither the fated câf, and cil it; and let us eet and be mery:
24. For this my sun woz ded, and iz aliev again; he woz lost, and iz found. And thay began to be mery.
25. Now hiz elder sun woz in the feeld; and az he caim and drue ny to the hous he herd muezic and dansing.
26. And he cauld won or the servants, and askt whot theez thingz ment.
27. And he said unto him, Thy bruther iz cum; and thy father hath cild the fated câf, becauz he hath reseevd him saif and sound.
28. And he woz angry, and wud not go in; thairfor caim hiz father out and intreeted him.
29. And he ansering said to hiz father, Lo theez meny yeerz doo I serv thee, neether transgrest I at eny tiem thy comandment; and yet thou never gaivest me a cid, that I miet maic mery with my frendz:
30. But az soon az this thy sun woz cum, which hath devourd thy living with harlots, thou hast cild for him the fated câf.
31. And he said unto him, Sun, thou art ever with me, and aul that I hav iz thien.
32. It waz meet that we shúd maic mery, and be glad: for this thy bruther woz ded, and iz alier again: and woz lost, and iz found.

The reader will, I trust, excuse me for preserving in this book a record of those early phonetic attempts to which the book itself is due. Mr. Isaac Pitman of Bath, the inventor of Phonography, or a peculiar kind of English shorthand founded upon phonetic spelling, in his Phonotypic Journal, for January, 1843, started the notion of Phonotypy or Phonetic Printing for general English use. In the course of that year my attention was drawn to his attempt, and I entered into a correspondence with him, which resulted in the concoction of various schemes of phonetic printing, for which types were east, so that they could be actually used, and specimens were printed in the Phonotypic Journal, beginning with January, 1844, till by December, 1846, we considered that a practical alphabet had been reached. ${ }^{1}$ It was in this Journal that I commenced my phonetic studies, ${ }^{2}$ and for one year, 1848, I conducted it myself,
${ }^{1}$ See suprà p. 607.
${ }^{2}$ The following list of the principal phonetic essays which I published in this Journal will shew the slow and painful process by which I acquired the knowledge of speech-sounds necessary for the compilation of the present work. They form but a small part of the whole work, or even of my whole writings on this subject, and the titles are merely preserved as indications of incūnābula.

## 1844.

On the letter R, pp. 5-12.
On Syllabication and the Indistinct Vowel, pp. 33-43.

Ambiguities of Language, pp. 71-73.
Unstable Combinations, pp. 74-76.
What an Alphabetshould be (a translated account of Volney's L'Alfabet Européen appliqué aux L̇angues Asiatiques, with explanations), pp. 106-114.

Phonetic Literature (an account of the principal grammars, dictionaries, and miscellaneous treatises containing more or less extensive essays on phonetics and English alphabets; it is very incomplete), pp. 133-144, 322329.

Phonotypic Suggestions, pp. 201-204.
A Key to Phonotypy or printing by sound, pp. 265-279.

The Alphabet of Nature, part I. Analysis of Spoken Sounds, pp. 1-128, forming a supplement from June to December, 1844.

## 1845.

The Alphabet of Nature, part II. Synthesis of Spoken Sounds, pp. 129157 ; part III. Ihonctical Alphabets, pp. 158-194, forming a supplement from March to June, 1845.

On the Vowel Notation, pp. 10-19.

On the Naturai Vowel, a paper by Mr. Danby P. Fry, (whose present views on orthography have just been illustrated,) printed phonetically, pp. 59-62, with remarks by A. J. Ellis, pp. 62-66.

1846 (all printed phonotypically).
Remarks on the New English Phonotypic Alphabet, pp. 4-12.

On Phonetic Spelling, pp. 124-128.
Practical Form of Phonotypy, pp. 171-174.

The Contrast, Phonotypy $v$. Heterotypy, pp. 197-206.

Far, For, Fur, pp. 305-308.

## 1847.

In May, this year, a vote of those interested in phonotypy was taken on the Alphabet, and results are given in an appendix, between pp. 148 and 149.

The Principles of English Phonetic Spelling considered, pp. 181-207, 277280 , including errata.

1848 (Phonctic Journal).
Origin and Use of the Phonetic Alphabet, pp. 4-31.

Tam o' shanter, printed in phonotypy, from the writing of Mr. Laing, of Kilmarnock, with glossary, pp. 145152, with remarks on Scotel Pronunciation by Prof. Gregory, Carstairs Douglas, Laing and myself, p. 198, 227-229, 276-282, being the first attempt at a stricter phonetic representation of dialectal pronunciation.

On Rhyme, pp. 340-345.
On 1st September, 1848, I published my "Essentials of Phonetics. In lieu of a Second Edition of the Alphabet of Nature." It was printed cutirely in the 1846 Alphabet.
under the changed name of the Phonetic Journal. In 1849 I abandoned it for the weekly phonetic newspaper called the Phonetic News, and at the close of that year my health gave way altogether, so that for some years I was unable to proscente any studies, and phonetic investigations were peculiarly trying to me. Mr. Pitman, however, revised the Journal, and, in rarious forms, has continued its publication to the present day. He became dissatisficd with the forms of type to which we had agreed in 1846, and, notwithstanding a large amount of literature printed in them, he continued to make alterations, with the riew of amending. Eren in 1873 theoretical considerations lead me to suppose that his alphabet may be further changed, although Mr. Pitman himself expresses much faith in the stability of his present results.

The following is a comparative view of palaeotype, glossic, the 1846 and 1873 alphabets, in the order used for 1846, with the Parable of the Prodigal Son, shewing in parallel columns the 1846 and 1873 forms of phonotypy. Mr. Isaac Pitman has kindly lent me the types for this purpose. One letter only, that for ( dh ), which appears in the alphabetic key in its 1846 form, has been printed in the 1873 form in the specimen, on account of want of the old form in stock; as will be seen by the key, however, the difference is very minute. The spelling in the 1846 alphabet precisely follows the phonetic orthography of the second edition of the New Testament which I printed and published in 1849, and exhibits the phonetic compromises which I made at that date. The column dated 1873 follows Mr. I. Pitman's present system of spelling, and has been furnished by himself.

Key to Pitman's and Ellis's Phonotypy, 1846 and 1873.

| Key Words | Palaeo- type | Glossic | Pitman and Ellis, 1846 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pitman, } \\ 18 \pi_{3}, \end{gathered}$ | Key Words | Palaco. type | Glossic | Pitman and <br> Ellis, 1846 | $\operatorname{Pitman}_{1873}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| beet | ii | ee | $\mathcal{E}$ \& | L. | pea | p |  | P p | P p |
| bait | ee | ai | A a | $\mathcal{E} \varepsilon$ | bee | b | b | B b | B b |
| baa | aa | aa | A q | A $\leqslant$ | toe | $t$ | t | T t | T t |
| caul | AA | au | $\theta$ O- | © © | doe | d | d | D d | D d |
| coal | oo | oa | O © | $\mathrm{OF}_{6}$ | chest | tsh | ch | $\mathrm{ECg}^{\text {c }}$ | C. |
| cool | uu | 00 | W u | W u | jest | dzh | j | J j | J j |
| knit | $i$ | i | I i | I i | keep | k | k | C c | Kk |
| net | e | e | Ee | Ee | gape | g | g | G g | Gg |
| gnat | æ | a | A a | A a | $f$ ie | f | f | Ff | Ff |
| not | $\bigcirc$ | - | O | $\bigcirc$ | $v$ ie | v | v | V v | V v |
| nut | - | u | Uu | $\bigcirc$ \% | thin | th | th | It | T 9 |
| foot | $u$ | uo | Wuld | Uu | then | dh | dh | A 4 | Id |
| height | əi | ei | Fi | ¢ ${ }_{\text {d }}$ | seal | s | s | S s | S s |
| foil | อi | 01 | $\mathrm{O}_{0}$ | Oi oi | zeal |  | 2 | Z z | Z $z$ |
| foul | əu | ou | 5 s | Ou ou | rush | sh | sh | ) V 5 | $\sum \mathrm{i} \int$ |
| feud | iu | eu | U 4 | Uと | rouge | zh | zh | K 3 | <3 |
|  |  |  |  |  | ear | $\alpha$ | ' |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | ring | Ir | $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$, | $\} \mathrm{Rr}$ | $\} \mathrm{Rr}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  | earring | ${ }_{1}$ | ${ }_{1}^{\text {rr }}$ | $)_{\text {L } 1}$ | ${ }_{\text {L } 1}$ |
| yea way | J | ${ }_{\text {w }}$ | $\mathrm{Y}^{\text {W }}$ y | $\mathrm{Y}_{\text {W }}{ }_{\text {w }}$ | lay | m | 1 | M m | $\mathrm{Ml}_{\mathrm{m}}$ |
| whey | wh | wh | Inw hw | Wh wh | nay | n | n | N n | N n |
| hay | II | h | II h | H h | sing | q | ng | I. 5 | $W_{11}$ |

## Parable of the Prodtgal Son，Luke xv．11－32．

Alex．J．Ellis， 1849.
11 And he sed，A serten man bad tú sunz：

12 And ar yunger ov tem sed tou hiz fqder，Fqder，giv me de perfun or gudz alat folet tu me． And he divided untu aem hiz livin．

13 And not meni daz qfter，ą yugger sun gaderd ol twgéter，and tuc hiz jurni intw a fqr cuntri，and dar wasted hiz substans wid rịutus livin．

14 And hwen he had spent el， tar aróz a miti famin in tát land； and he begán tur be in wont．

15 And he went and jornd him－ sélf tur a sitiz＇n ov aát cuntri ；and he sent him intw hiz feldz two fed swin．

16 And he widd fan hav fild hiz beli wid de huses dat ar swin did et：and no man gav untur him．

17 And hweu he cam tuu himsélf， he sed：Hz meni hird servants ov mĭ fquerz hav bred enúf and tou spar，and i perif wid hunger！

18 世 wil aríz and go tu mif fq－ Aer，and wil sa untu him，Fqder， i．hav sind agénst hev＇n and befór đ́と，

19 And am no mor wurdi two be cold $A \mathfrak{i}$ sun ：mac me az wun ov t t hird servants．

20 And he aróz，and cam tur hiz fqder．But hwen he woz yet a grat wa of，hiz fquer se him，and had compafun，and ran，and fel on hiz nee，and cist him．

21 And $d \varepsilon$ sun sed untur him， Fqder，it har sind agénst hev＇n，and in $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{i}}$ sitt，and am no mor wurdi tu be cold dj sun．

22 But de fquer sed tu hiz ser－ vants，Brin fort Ae best rob，and put it on him ；and pint a riy on hiz hand，and juz on hiz fet：

23 And brin hider de fated caf， and cil it；and let us et，and be meri ：

24 For tis mi sun woz ded，and iz alịv agén；he roz lost，and iz fond．And da begún tu be meri．

25 Ns hiz elder sun roz in $A \varepsilon$ feld：and $\alpha z$ he cam and dru ni

Isaac Pitman， 1873.
11 And hi sed，A serten man had tún ssnz：

12 And ae yryger or dem sed tu hiz fader，Fsđer，giv mi de porfon ov gudz dat folef tu mi． And hi divided sntu dem hiz liviy．

13 And not meni dez after，de jryger ssn gaterd ol tugetter，and tuk hiz jerni intu a far ksntri，and der wested hiz ssbstans wid rijotss livin．

14 And when hi had spent ol， Aer arơz a mj̧ti famin in đát land； and hi began tu bi in wont．

15 And hi went and joind him－ self tu a sitizen ov dát ksntri ；and h．i sent him intu hiz fildz tu fid swin．

16 And his wud fen hav fild hiz beli wid de hrsks dat de swin did it：and no man gev sntu him．

17 And when hi kem tu himself， his sed，Hou meni hird servants ov mi foter＇z hav bred ensf and tu sper，and i perif wit lisyger！

18 巫 wil ariz and go tu mj ff－ der，and wil se sntu him，Fgder， i hav sind agenst heven and befor à，

19 And am no mor wrrai tu bi
 hird servants．
20 And hi arezz，and kem tu hiz fster．Bst when hi woz yet a gret we of，hiz foder so him，and had kompajon，and ran，and fel on hiz nek，and kist him．

21 And de ssn sed sntu him， Fgter，i hav sind agenst heven，and in $A \mathrm{j}$ siti，and am no mor wsrai tu bi kold di ssn．

22 Bst de foder sed tu hiz ser－ vants，Briy forf de best robb，and put it on him ；and put a rin on hiz hand，and fuz on hiz fit：

23 And brin hider te fated kof， and kil it；and let ss it，and bi meri ：

24 For tis mi ssn woz ded，and iz aljuv agen；hi moz lost，and iz found．And $A \varepsilon$ began tu bi meri．

25 Nou hiz elder ssn woz in de fild：and az hi kem and dru nị

Alex. J. Ellis, 1849.
tou de hys, he herd mqzie and dqnsi!j.
26 And he celd wun ov te servants, and qset hwot dez tipz ment.

27 And he sed untu him, di. bruder iz cum ; and dij fquter hat cild de fated eqf, beeez he hat resévd him saf and ssnd.

28 And he woz angri, and wád not go in : darfor cam hiz fqder st, and intreted him.

29 And he quseriy sed to hiz fqter, La, A\&z meni yerz du i, serv dé, neder transgrést ig at eni tị̆m di comqndment: and yet $d s$ never gavest me a cid, tat $\mathrm{im}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{t}$ mae meri wit mj frendz:
30 But az sunn az Ais di suu woz cum, hwiç hat devśrd Aj̣ livily wid hqriuts, ar hast cild fer him te fated cqf.

31 And he sed untur him, Sun, As qrt ever wid me, and el dat i hav iz dinn.

32 It woz met Aat we fud mae meri, and be glad: for dis $\mathrm{ti}_{\mathrm{i}}$ bruter woz ded, and iz alḑv agén; and woz lost, and iz fsnd.

Isafc Pitnan, 1873.
tu de hous, hi. herd muzik and dansing.

26 And hi kold wsn ov te servants, and askt whot tiz fiyz ment.

27 And hi sed sntu him, di brster iz kym, and dij fiter haf kild te fated kef, bekoz hi haf res.ivd him sef and sound.

28 And hi woz angri, and wud not go in: derfor kem hiz fster out, and intrited him.

29 And hi.i anseriy sed tu hiz fsder, Ler, Aiz meni yirz dut it serv Ai, nifder trausgrest if at eni tim Ad komandment: and yet dou never gevest mi a kid, dat i migt mek meri wid mig frendz:
30 But az sun az Ais Aj ssn woz ksm , whig hat devourd Aju livị̣ wid harlots, dou hast kild for him de fated kof.

31 And hii sed zntu him, Ssn, dou art ever wid mi, and ol tat $i$ hav iz Gign.
32 It woz mit tat wi fud mek meri, and bi glad: for dis di brster woz ded, and iz alịv agen ; and woz lost, and iz found.

Other faney orthographies, which have not been advocated before the Philological Society, or seriously advanced for use, or phonetic spellings requiring new letters, are not given. A revision of our orthography is probably imminent, but no principles for altering it are yet settled. I have already expressed my convictions (p. 631); but, as shewn by the above specimen of Glossic, I know that the phonetic feeling is at present far too small for us to look forward to anything like a perfect phonetie representation. We are indeed a long way off from being able to give one, as already seen by the contrast of the pronunciations given by Mr. Bell and myself, and as will appear still more elearly presently. But more than this, we are still a long way from haring any clear notion of how much should or could be practically attempted, if we liad a sufficient phonetic knowledge to start with. And my personal experience goes to shew that very few people of education in this country have as yet the remotest conception of what is meant by a style of spelling which slall consistently indicate promunciation. I have found many such writers commit the most absurd blunders when they attempt an orthography of their own, and shew a wonderful incapacity in handling sueh a simple tool as Glossic.

Dr. Donders, writing in a language which has recently reformed its orthography, chiefly in a phonctie direction, whose reformed orthography, as we have seen ( $1114, c$ ), requires curious rules of
combination thoroughly to understand, justly says: "The knowledge of the mechanism and nature of speech-sounds preserves them for posterity, and is the foundation of a phonetie system of writing, which is less adapted for ordinary use, but is of priceless value for writing down newly heard languages, and indispensable for comparative philology." (De kemnis van 't mechanisme en den aard der spraakklanken bewaart ze roor het nageslacht, en is de grondslag eener phonetische schrijfwijs, die voor 't gewone gebruik minder doelmatig, maar bij het opschrijven ran nieuw gehoorde talen van onschatbare waarde en voor vergelijkende taalstudie onontbeerlijk is. Concluding words of : De physiologie der Spraakklanken, p. 24).

Careful Transcripts of Actual Pronunctation by Haldeman, Ellis, Sweet, and Smart.

The above examples are, however, quite insufficient to shew actual differences of usage, as they are confined to two observers, the varieties of spelling used by Mr. Fry and Mr. Jones not being sufficient to mark varieties of pronunciation, and the phonotypy of 1849 and 1873 purposely avoiding the points in question. It seemed, therefore, necessary to obtain careful transcripts of some individualities of pronunciation. Gencral usage is after all only an abstraction from concrete usage, and although in phonetic writing, such as we have dealt with in preceding chapters, only rude approximations were attempted, it is certainly adrisable to ascertain to some extent the degrees of difference which such approximations imply. There are, however, very few persons who are at all capable of undertaking such an analysis of their own or other person's habits.

## Prof. Haldeman.

Mr. S. S. Haldeman, of Columbia, Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Pennsylvania, to whom I have been so much indebted for Pennsylvania German (suprà p. 656) and other notes, wrote an essay on phonetics, which obtained a prize offered by Sir Walter Trevelyan, ${ }^{1}$ and is one of the most important works we possess upon the subject which it treats. On p. 127 Prof. Haldeman gives a transcript of a passage first published by myself in a phonetic form, ${ }^{2}$ in an extension of the Pitman and Ellis
${ }^{1}$ Analytic Orthography; an Investigation of the Sounds of the Voice, and their Alphabetic Notation; including the Mechanism of Speech and its bearing upon Etymology, (4to. pp. 148. Philadelphia, Lippincott \& Co. ; London, Trübner \& Co., 1860.)
${ }_{2}$ Essentials of Phonetics, p. 104. It is a translation of a portion of the preface to the first edition of Pott's Etymologische Forschungen (p. viii). The following is the original, with the addition of two sentences, which are not given in the examples:-
"Die schriftliche und druckliche Lautbezeichnung einer Sprache mit, nach Art und Zahl unzulänglichen Charakteren, die man daher combiniren oder modificiren muss, um nur mit einiger Genauigkeit und Bequemlichkeit das Phonetische derselben graphisch darzustellen, ist von jeher für Völker sowohl als Individuen, die Sprachforscher nicbt ausgeschlossen, eine der nothwendigsten und schwierigsten Aufgaben gewesen, die desshalb auch in den wenigsten Fällen glücklich gelöst ist. Mögen wir daraus lernen,
alphabet just illustrated. But as he has not followed the pronunciation there given, it must be considered an independent and extremely minute account of his own pronunciation. He has himself kindly revised the proof of its present transcription into palaeotype. He says, in sereral passages of his chap. xvi., here for conrenience thrown together: "Orthoepists blind themselves to the genius and tendencies of the language, and represent a jargon which no one uses but the child learning to read from divided syllables, who turns 'li-on' into lie on; or the German, who fancies that the first syllable of 'phantom' occurs in 'elephant,' because they resemble in German and French (p. 122). . . Every English word of three or more syllables requires the vowel $(\partial, y, i),{ }^{1}$ or a syllable without a vowel, when the structure of the word does not interfere with it, as graduate, self-sameness, portmanteau, and the difficulty is to decide upon the proper vowel, as in candidate, agitate, elevate, expedite, avenue, maladiction, - for rernacular practice cannot be controlled by the consideration that the original was an adverb rather than an adjective, unless it can be shown that the adverbial form has been preserved in speech, and we think it is not. With the spelling we have nothing to do (p. 123). . . . We do not recommend our own pronunciation,-forms like tra-vlr, difrns, instnsz, genrl, temprns, dicshury, ${ }^{2}$ being too condensed-too Attic, for
dass die Erfindung der Schrift, die grösste und wichtigste, welche je der menschliche Geist gemacht hat, und die, seine Kräfte in der That fast übersteigend, nicht mit Unrecht von ihm häufig den Göttern beigelegt wird, eben so gut als der complicirt-einfache Organismus eines Staates, nicht das Werk Einzelner, sondern von Jahrhunderten, vielleicht Jahrtausenden sei. Yon der Abbildung als einem Gauzen, welches der Gegenstand fast noch selber ist, von dem blossen Erinnerungszeichen, durch das Wort, die Sylbe bis zum-Buchstaben, was für eine immer mehr in's Feine gehende Analyse! Der Thauth der neueren Zeit, der Tschirokese Sih-qua-ja oder mit englischem Namen George Guess wird uns am besten sagen können, was cin Alphabet erfinden und einer Sprache anpassen beisst."

And, as some readers may be slightly puzzled with the following elaborate phonetic representations, it may be convenient to amnex the English translation followed in the examples, together with the two additional sentences:
"The written and printed representation of the sounds of language, by means of characters, which are insufficient, both in kind and number, and which must, therefore, be combined, or
modified, if we would give a graphical symbolisation of the phonetic elements with only some degree of exactness and convenience, has been, from all time, for nations as well as iudividuals, linguistical students not excepted, one of the most necessary, and one of the most difficult of problems, and has consequently scarcely ever been happily solved. Let this teach us that the invention of writing, the greatest and most important invention which the human mind has ever made, and which, as it indeed almost exceeds its strength, has been often and not unjustly attributed to the gods, like the organism of a state, at once simple and complex, is not the work of individuals, but of centuries, perhaps of thousands of years. From the pictorial representation, as an entirety, which is almost the object itself,-from the mere memorial sign, through the word and the syllable, up to the letter,-what a continually finer analysis! The Thoth of modern times, the Cherokee See-kwak-yah, or to give him his English name George Guess, can best tell us what it is to invent an alphabet and adapt it to a language."
${ }^{1}$ For many of his $(0, y)$ I find I rather say ( s .
${ }^{2}$ From a MS. insertion by the author.
ordinary use, besides being more influenced by the spelling than the genins of the language allows. In looking through the Phonetie periodicals, whilst preparing this essay, we find that we have been ignorant of the name of many public characters. To us there was a fictitious Clánricàrd within two weeks, and whilst we know that our two friends 'Mackay' are respectively (Makee') and (Mekji'), we do not know the name of the poct Charles Mackay, though we have heard him named (Mæ.ki). We mispronounced the proper names Tyrwhit, Napier, Hereford, Bowring (a gentleman we have more reeently met), Keightley (which we had classed with Weightman), Howick, Moore, Mavor, Latham, Youatt, Lowth, Houghton (Hoton, which we elassed with Hough or Huf), 'Aurora Leigh,' leg? lay? lee? lie? Once when in Boston, Massachusetts, with a fellow-trareller, we wished to see a public building of which we had read, named Faneuil Hall, and after discussing what we should ask for, we wisely concluded that the natives would not understand us, or would laugh at our pronunciation-so we neither saw the building nor learnt its name ${ }^{1}$ (p. 123, note). . . Some prefer the pronunciation of men of letters, but in the present state of phonetic and prosodic knowledge, as exhibited in the great majority of the grammars, men of letters constitute the ignorant class, with the perversions of French analogies added to their ignorance; and if the vulgar corrupt (develop?) words, they are at least true to the vernacular laws. But in comparing a lettered with an illiterate pronunciation, the two must be of the same locality and dialect, church cannot be judged from kirk; and the words must be vernacular, as one, two, three; body, head, arm, eye ;-land, field, water, fire, house, rain, star, sun, moon (p. 124). . . The three different vowels of ooze, up, eel, were once given to us by three lettered Cherokees as occurring in the second syllable (of four) of their word for eight. We considered it likely that the up was correct, although a 'syllabic' writer might have considered it as certainly wrong; but when we asked an unlettered native, he used no vowel whatever in this place, and we deemed him correct, and the others perverted by their syllabic alphabet, which forces them to write fictitionsly, and then to speak as they write, instead of doing the reverse. The word was ('galhh'gwoo'gi*) in three syllables, and having Welch $l l$. Similarly, if one orthoepist would model seven on the Gothie sibun, another on the Anglish ${ }^{2}$ syfon, and a third on the old English seven, or Belgian (see Ten ) with (c) of end, we would still prefer saying sern $=(\mathrm{sevn})$ with the Inglish " (p. 124).

[^7]commonly mispronounced, (Heriffd, Bo'u'riq, Ha'wik, Muri, Meeve, Leethrem), so called by Dr. Latham, but his fanily call themselves (Lee'-
 (oroo' re Liii), are, so far as I know, the sounds of these names. Lord Houghton's family name Milhes is called (M2lz).
${ }^{2}$ Ags. seofan, seofen, siofun, syfon.

The following are the elementary English sounds acknowledged by Prof. Haldeman as numbered and symbolised by him (see his tables, on his p. 125), with the palaeotypic equivalents here adopted. The length of the rowels is not here indicated, and will be described hereafter. The symbols being troublesome to reproduce they will be referred to by the numbers, with the addition of $v, c, l$, for the classes of Vowels, Consonants, and Laryugals respectively.

Vowels.

| 1. a arm | (a) |  | (a) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. e up | (a) ? | 11. a awe | (A) |
| 3. x add | (x) | 11'. (o pond, rod) |  |
| 4. $\varepsilon$ thêre | (e) | 12. ${ }_{0}$ odd | (0) |
| 5. $\epsilon e \mathrm{bb}$ | (e) | 13. o owe | (o) |
| 6. e they | (e) | 13'. - whole |  |
| 7. a buffet | (y) ? | 14. a pool | (n) |
| 8. 2 pity | (i) | - (.. crews) |  |
| 9. 1 field | (i) | 15. v pull |  |

Consonants.

| 1. $\dot{\text { r }}$ now |  |  |  | 25. j |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. v way (w) | 10. 1 (l) | 16.r (Lr), 17. r (.r), 18. 〕 (x) | 21. ${ }^{\text {J }}$ ( $\mathrm{s}_{1}$ ) | 26. J (J) |
| 3. vi whey (wh) |  |  | 22. $y^{\prime \prime}\left(J_{1} \mathrm{~h}\right)$ | 27. $\mathrm{s}^{\prime \prime}$ ( sh$)$ |
| 4. m ( m ) | 11. $n(\mathrm{n})$ |  |  | 28. $\Gamma$ (q) |
| 5. $\mathrm{m}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{lm}$ ( mb ) | 12. d (d) |  |  |  |
| 7. evein (v) | 13. a (dh) | 19. 3 (z) | 23. f (zh) |  |
| 8. p (p) | 14. t (t) |  |  | 30. c (k) |
| 9. f (f) | 15. I (th) | 20. s (s) | 24. f (sh) |  |

Laryngals.-31.h hay (hh)?
It is always extremely difficult to identify phonetic symbols belonging to different systems, on account of individualities of pronunciation. Even when viva toce comparison is possible, the identification is not always complete. Some of the above are queried, and to some no symbols are added. I shall therefore subjoin Prof. Haldeman's descriptions of his symbols:

1 r . in arm. "The most characteristic of the vowels is that in arm, art, father, commonly called Italian A" (art. 370). This must be (a), and not (ah) or (a).

2 v . in up. "Many languages want this vowel, which is so common in English as to be regarded as the characteristic of the vowels. It has not been assigned to Greek, Italian, Spanish, nor German, but it occurs in dialectic German. . . . . It is close (в) in up, würth, and open (e) in wơrm, wŭrd, urn. The effect of worth is that of a short syllable, each element being short, (the $r$ close;) whilst worm is long on account of the open and longer $r$. The vowel up is nasal in the French un; but M. P'antoléon (in Comstock's Phon. Mag.) makes this a nasal eu in jeu,
and Lepsius refers it to German ö. In the writer's French pronunciation, up is placed in mĕ, quĕ, quĕrelle, etc., according to the view of most French grammarians." (Arts. 374-5.) It is impossible to say from this whether the 2 v . is ( $\partial, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}, \ldots$, oh), and it may be one at one time and one at another. The open and close 2 v . apparently point to ( $a, a$ ), and the dialectic German is (ə) or (e). Hence I have queried my palaeotypic transcription (o), although Prof. IIaldeman, in returning, the proof of the table, doubted the necessity of the query.

3 v . in add. "With very little affinity to $A$, this sound usurps its character in some alphabets. It is more nearly allied to ebb , but not enough to have a letter on the same basis, like that of

Lepsius. The pcople of Bath, England, are said to pronounce the name of the town long, and it is strictly long and short in Welsh, as in băch a hook, bāch little. It seems to be lengthened in the following words, but as the author speaks this dialect-heard in Philadelphia, and used by Walker, who puts his $a^{4}$ of fat in grass, grasp, branch, grant, pass, fast, the proper sound being probably French â, as in pâss, etc.-the observation must be accepted with caution: pān pănic, bānd bănish, fān făncy, māņ tăn. cān $n$. căn v., brān răn, $A^{-} n n$ ăn A nna, Sām sămple, dām hăm, drānı răm, lāmb lămp, bād păd, glād lăd, bāg tăg běg, cāg wăg kĕg, drāg drăgon, mādder adj. mădder 22 ., mā̄ām mămmon, bāā bădger, gās gāz găsh ăs, lāss lăsh, brêad brĕd, dêad Dědham, bēd spěd. It occurs in provincial German, as in bx'ruc (with the rowels of bărrìer) for berg berg, a hill. A native of Gerstungen = Gérstŭ $\Gamma \not \partial n$, in Sase Weimer, pronounced the first syllable of this name with x in arrow. Compare thatch deck, catch ketch, have hev, scalp scelp; German and English fett fat, krebs crab, fest fast adj., Gr. $\tau \rho \epsilon ́ \chi \omega$ I run, track. It has a long and open German provincial (Suabian) form, being used for long open ä (ê), as in $\mathrm{bx}^{-r}$ for bür a bear. This bears the same relation to add that French ê in même bears to $e$ in memory. This vowel is nasalised and short in the French fin end, pain bread. But some consider this a nasal of ebb, either because such a sound is used (the Polish e, ? ), or because the Freneh (being without the pure $a \mathrm{dd}$ ) refer their nasal in to the nearest pure sound known to them." (Arts. 378 -382.) This must be ( $x$ ). The American lengthenings are interesting. There is an American Hymn-book, put together by two compilers, each having the Christian name Samucl. It was familiarly known as "the book of Sams." The pun on psalms is not felt by an Englishman, the lengthening of sam explains it completely.

4 v . in there. "The vowel of ebb, with a more open aperture, is long and accented in the Italian médĭcor tempēstă ciêlo, and short in the rerb è is, ăb-biět-to. It is the Freach $\hat{e}$ in même, tête, fenêtre, maître, haic, Aix, air, vaisseau. The same sound seems to oceur shorter in trompette, which is not the vowel of petty. . . . It is the

German ä long in mäbre mare, mährchen, fehlen, kehle, währe, but wehre has E long. The theoretic short sound falls into 5 v ., as in ställe stalls, commonly pronounced like stelle station." (Arts. 388-9.) There seems no doubt that this is ( E ), but it is singular that l'rof. Haldeman has ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{e}$ ), and Mr. Bell (c, e) in there ebb, and I pronounce (e) in both. It is crident therefore that the distinction is not recognized as part of the language.

5 r . in $e b b$. "The secondary vowels it ebb, were not allowed to Latin, because there is no evidence that they were Latin sounds; and although ebb occurs in Spanish, as in el the, estē this one, it is not so frequent as an Englishnan might suppose. Eren this is not admitted in Cubi's 'Nuevo Sistema' (of English for Spaniards), published by I. Pitman, Bath, 1851, where the vowels ill, cll, am, up, olive, are not provided with Spanish keywords; but he assigus the whole of them to Catalonian." (Art. 385.) As I had an opportunity of conversing with Señor Cubì y Soler, who spoke English with a good accent, I know that he did not admit any short vowels in Castillian, and hence he excluded all these, and took the Spanish $e$, which is I believe always (e), to be (ee). The Castillians pronounce their vowels, I believe, of medial length, like the Scotch, and neither so short nor so long as the English. The Latin E I also believe to have been (e), and not (e). "The rowel 5v. occurs in Italian témpo térra Mércùriŏ." (Art. 386.) Valentini makes the $e$ aperto $=(\mathrm{E})$ in tempo terra, and, of course, it is chiuso $=(e)$ in the unaccented first syllable of Mereurio. "In the German réchnung a reclioning, pelz pelt fur, schmeltzen to smelt, rector rector. (ibid.) Frenchmen state that 5 v. occurs in elle, quel, règle." (Art. 387.) In none of these can ( $\mathbf{E}, \mathrm{e}$ ) be safely separated. I believe Prof. IIaldeman means 4 v . to be (EE), and 5v. to be (e), the former always long, the latter always short. I always used to confuse the open French and Italian (F) with my (e), and I may have consequently misled many others. But the only acknowledged distinctions in language seens to be close $e$, open $e$, the first ( $e, \mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), the second ( $\mathrm{e}_{1}$, E), while (e) really hovers between the two, and hence where ouly one $e$ is acknowledged, (e) is the safer
sound to nse, as ( $e, \mathrm{e}^{1}$ ) would then be heard as bad (i), and ( $e_{1}$, e) as bad (e).

6v. in they. "The English ay in pay, paid, day, weigh, ale, rage, is short in weight, hate, acre, $A^{2}$ mos, $A^{\prime}$ bram, ape, plague, spade. The German wēh wo, rēh roe, jē, planēt, mēer, mēhr (more, but mähr tidings has 4 v .), edel, ēhre, jëdŏch. The Italian 'e chiuso' has this quality, as in màlé ottóbrĕ (with 'o chiuso' [Valentini agrees in this]), but it is nearly always short. Most authors assign tbis sound to French é, called 'é fermé,' but Dr. Latham assigns this é a closer aperture, for he says, "This is a sound allied to, but different from, the $a$ in fate, and the $c e$ in feet. It is intermediate to the two.' Dankorsky says the Hungarian 'é est medius sonus inter e et $i$,' but his ' $e$ ' is uncertain. Olivier (Les Sons de la Parole, 1844) makes é identic with I in the position of the mouth." (Art. 391.) This must be (e). The recognition of the short sound in English is curions, as also the absence of the recognition of (ee'j). The middle Germans use (ee) long, and (e) or (E) short, regularly. The Italian e chiuso sounds to me (e), but may be ( $e^{1}$ ); it is generally the descendant of Latin I. The distinction between fate and $e ́$ in Dr. Latham is possibly due to his saying (feejt), not (feet), and to the é being short. Mr. Kovács pronounced Hungarian $e ́$ as (ee), and $e$ as (æ) in accented syllables. Olivier probably confused $\dot{e}$ with ( $i$ ), the short English sound which has replaced (e).

7 v . in buffet, and in -ment, -ence. "There is an obscure vowel in English, having more aperture than that of ill and less than that of ail. It is used to separate consonants by such an amount of vocality as may be secured without setting the organs for a particular vowel. It is most readily determined between surds, and it is often confounded and perbaps interchanged with the vowel of up. It occurs in the natural pronunciation of the last syllable of worded, blended, splendid, sordid, livid, ballad, salad, surfeit, buffet, opposes, doses, roses, losses, misses, poorer, horror, Christian, onion, and the suffixes -ment, -ant, -ance, -ent, -ense. Perbaps this vowel should be indicated by the least mark for the phase of least distinctness-a dot beneath the letter of some recognized vowel of about in the same aperture. It is so evanescent
that it is constantly replaced by a consonant vocality without attracting atteution, as in saying hors'z, horsz, horszs, or (using a faint smooth $r$ ) hors'z. . . With Rapp we assign this vowel to German, as in welches, verlieren, verlássen (or even frlásn)." (Arts. 392 to $392 c$.) This mark therefore represents sounds here distinguished as ( $y, \varepsilon, \quad$ 'h), and on the whole $(y)$, as used by Mr. Bell, seems to answer most nearly to it, see especially $(1159, b)$ : I have, however, queried the sigu, on which Prof. Haldeman observes, that the query "is hardly necessary. The doubts are due to the fact that while two varieties are admitted we might not always agree in locating them."
8 v . in pity. "It is the German vowel of kĭnn chin, hĭtz̆g, bullĭg, wĭli, bild; and the initial of the Belgian diphthong ienw (and perhaps in some cases the Welsh $u w)$. . . . . This vowel is commonly confounded with I, but it has a nore open jaw aperture, while each may be lengthened or shortened." (Arts. 396, 398.) This is no doubt (i), which is heard in the north of Germany, but not throughout. Mr. Barnes, author of the Dorset Grammar, distingnishes the two vowels in pity thus (pi ti), but others prefer ( $\mathrm{p} i \cdot \mathrm{ty}$ ), henco the identification refers only to the first vowel.
9 v . in field. "The universal I is long in Italian iǒ (Lat. ego, $I$ ), and short in fëlicitiàrĕ, with true e. In English it is long in machine, marine, fiend, fee, tea, bee, grieve, eel. It is short in ěqual, ëduce, deceit, heat, beet, reef, grief, teeth. German examples are vīeh, wīeder against, wĭder again, whe viel how much, vǐelleicht perhaps. It is medial in knie Fenee. French examples are surprīse, vīve, īle, stȳle, ǐl, vĭf, phy̆sĭque, Ĭmĭter, lĭqừde, vĭsĭte, politique, which must not be pronounced like the English physic, etc., with the vowel of pit. The following are perhaps medial:-prodige, cidre, ligue, vite. empire." (Art. 399.) This is certainly (i). The short value in accented syllables is noteworthy. In "bĕlieve, régret, dĕscent, which cannot differ from dispose," (art. 395), Prof. Haldeman hears 8 v . not 9 v ., that is (i), and not (i).

10v. in äisle, Cäiro. "French $a$ in âme, pătte. The former is commonly received as the vowel of arm, the latter of pat. Duponcean (Am. Phil. Trans.,

1818, vol. i. p. 258 ), in 1817, made the distinction. He says that French a occurs in the Euglish diphthongs i and ou, and that the sound is between ah and awe, being ah pronounced as full and broadly as possible, without falling into awe. The initial of Enclish $i$ (or $e$ in hëight) differs in being pronounced up and at. This is probably the proper vowel for grass, pass, alas (Fr. hélas)." (Arts. 400, 401.) The vowel is meant for (a) according to Duponceau's deseription, and that vowel is pronounced in French pâte. But the vowel in Fr. patte is either (a) or (ah), and not (a), at present at least. The pronunciations (graas, gras), ete., seem to be much broader than any used by educated Englishmen, but see $\left(1152, d^{\prime}\right)$. Prof. Haldeman uses (a), and not ( $\partial$ ) or ( $x$ ), as he suggests above, for the first element of long $\bar{i}$, that is (dii), not ( $\left.{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{i}, x^{\prime} \mathrm{i}\right)$, see ( $108, c$ ).

11 v . in awe. "This sound lies between A and O , and is common in several German dialeets. . . . . The Germans represent it commonly by a, adopting the Swedish mode, where however the sound seems to be a kind of o." (Art. 402.) The sound is, therefore ( $A$ ). The Swedish is ( $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ ), having the tongue as for (A) and the lips as for $(o)$, see $\left(1116, a^{\prime}\right)$. "This awe is not to be determined by its length, but by its quality. It is long in rāw, flāw, lẵ, cā̃w, ăll, cāll, thāwed, lāud, hāwk; medial in loss, cross, tossed, frost, long, song, strong, or, for, lord, order, border, war, warrior, corn, adorn, born, warn, horn, morn, storm, forin, warm, normal, cork, wan, swan,

| gānd | God | nŏd |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| àwe | or | orrange |
| fāwned | fond | astơnish |
| thāwed | thought | Thoth |
| long āwe | pāwned | wāw |
| short ăue | ǎnthor | wăter |
| medial awe | pond | war |
| medial oddd | rod | God |
| short üdd | pơnder | bödy |

(Arts. 405-407.) It is evident that the vowel is either $(0,0)$, or $\left(0{ }^{1}\right)$. The indications of length do not seem to be strictly observed in England.

13 v . in öwe, bōne, büat. "This wellknown sound is long in mōan, lōan, $\overline{\text { oैwe, }}$ gō, lōw, fōe, cōal, cōne, bōre, rōar, bōwl, sōnl; and short in över, öbey, öpen, öpinion, ŏnyx, ŏnerous, ŏak, ơchre, rögue, ǒats, ŏpium; and medial
dawn, fond, bond, pond, exhaust, false, often, soften, gorge, George; and short in squăsh, wăsh (ef. rusb, push), ăuthor (cf. oath, pîth), wătch, wăter, slăngliter, quărt, quărter, wărt, shŏrt, mơrtar, hŏrse (ef. curse), remơrse, fŏrmer, ơfteu, nŏrth, mŏth, făult, fălter, păltry." (Art. 403.) These quantities cross my own habits materially. Many of medial length are reekoned long in England, and still more of them short. See notation for medial quantity ( $1116, b a$ ).

11'v. in pord, rod. "This 12 v .differs
12 v . in odd. $\}$ from the preceding 11v. in being formed with less aperture." (Art. 405.) It is observable that according to Mr. Bell (0) is the 'wide' of (A), that is, the aperture at the back of the greatest compression is greater: But perhaps Prof, Haldeman spoke the rowel with the tongue further forward, as (, 0 ), or even with the tongue raised, ( $0^{1}$ ). "It is short in nŏt, nǒd, hơd, whăt, squătter (ef. the open wăter), mơrrow, borrrow, sơrrow, hŏrror, chŏice, pŏnder, thrŏng, prơng; medial in on, yon, John, God, rod, gone, aught, thought, bought, eaught, naught, fought, sance, loiter, boy, and perhaps long in cōy, ōil. Some of these medials may belong to awe, and some of those to this head. The accuracy of these examples is not expected to be admitted in detail, because practice between the two vowels is not uniform ; yet it is probable that no one puts the vowel of potter, or the quantity of fall, in water, which is neither wâwter nor wŏtter. In the following table, the medial examples bave been chosen without regard to the rowel they contain:

| gnāw'r | nor | Nŏr'ich |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rāwed | rod | Rŏdney |
| āwed | aught | ödd |
| lāws | loss | lŏzenge. |
| squāw | yāwn | hāw |
| squăsh | wănt | hörse |
| swan | wan | horn |
| thought | gone | John |
| squăt | hŏnest | hŏrror." |

in going, showy. It does not oceur in Itali:m. 0 is long in the German tōn, düm, hōf, hōch, lōb, tōl, trōg, mōhn, lōhn, mōor, mōnd; medial in oder, also, vor, von, wo, ob, oheim; and short in wöhin, höfnung. öst, öfen, ǒber, köeh, lüch, zǒ-o-lŏg." (Arts. 416,417 .) This must be ( 0,0 ). 'There is no mention of ( $\left(00^{\prime} w\right)$. The short accented $(0)$ is not in received Liuglish use.
$13^{\prime} \mathrm{v}$. in whole. French o. "This sound seems to the writer to be more open than owe, and closer than o aperto, and his impression is that the long and short sound have the same quality. . . . The New England or Yankee o in whŏle, coat, is a short sound with a wider aperture of jaw than owe, but not (perhaps) of lip. It has been casually heard, but not studied, and we refer it to the French o in boune." (Arts. 412, 415.) Mr. Bell considers the French o in homme to be (oh), and the American $o$ in stone to be (oh), the labialised forms of ( 0 , ah) respectively. But Prof. Haldeman suggests another solution, namely ( $\sigma_{0}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ ), which is Mr. Sweet's analysis of Danish aa, and is, in fact, a passing anticipation of Mr. Sweet's discovery of the effect of different degrees of rounding upon one lingual position (1116 $a^{i}$ ). The sound is altogether a provincialism, and I have been aceustomed to consider the French sound as (0) and the Yankee as (o), which I have also heard in Norfolk (non) $=$ none.

14v. in pool.) "These two vowels are
15 v . in pull. $\}$ distinct in quality, and have the same variations in quantity. They are to each other as awe is to odd, and they require distinct characters." (Art. 422.) Hence they are marked as $(\mathrm{u}, u)$, whieh are exactly as $(\Lambda, \partial)$, the second being the wide of the first. "In passing through the series $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}$, U , it will be found that U iu pool is labial in its character, and that this labiality is preserved in shortening fōol to fücllish, whilst full, fullish, have very little aid from the lips." (Art. 423.) That $(u)$ can be imitated with widely open lips is readily perceived, but it can be most easily pronounced with the lips in the ( $u$ )-position (1114, $d^{\prime}$ ). This lipless $(u)$, or $\left(u^{4}\right)$, is very useful to the singer, as it can be touched at a high pitch, whereas true labial ( $u$ ) cannot be sung distinctly at a high pitch. "If we compare fool with a word like fuel, rule (avoiding the Belgian diphthong iew), we detect in it (fyoo'l, rule), a closer sound, which when long is confused with U , as in fool, rule, meaning by the latter neither ryule nor riwl, but rool, with a narrow aperture. This closer $u$ is often proceded by $y$ and $r$, as in due, dew, stew, ruin, rūdc, where it is rather medial than long." (Art. 424.) Prob-
ably we should write this ( $\mathrm{u}^{1}$ ), or ( u ), or cren ( $\mathrm{u}^{1}$ ). It seems to be local and individual, not received. This sound, or what I suppose to be this sound, I seem to have heard from Americans, and in Lancashire, and it approached one of the palato-labial vowels, or ( $y$ )series. In fact I felt it as a form of ( U . . "Leaving quantity out of the question, we pronounce brew, etc., with 15 v . [ 2 in pall], whilst Worcester, probably the most judicious of the English orthoepists, refers them to the koy-word move." (Art. 591.) This is, I think, the more usual pronunciation. The $u$ orthography, however, suggests palatalisation to the speaker, and hence he makes an approach to ( $u j, u j=1, y$ ).

1c. and 25c. in now, aisle, are "coalescents," a term introduced, I believe, by myself, to classify ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ), as the form under which the vowels ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ) coalcsced with another vowel. Prof. Haldeman uses 1c. and 25 c . to form diphthongs, and distinguishes them from ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ). In order to shew that they have this meaning, I employ the acute accent on the preceding vowel, thus ( $\left.\dot{i} \mathrm{w}, a^{\prime} \mathrm{J}\right)$, which are really equivalent to my ( $a$ u, di), but have the disadvantage of not so accurately distinguishing the second element, so tbat for (u'J) the reader has a choice among (aí, aii, dंe, áy, d́J), etc. Prof. Haldeman says: "The separation of the coalescents from the vowels, being quite modern, their difference is seldom recognized in alphabets. This is a grave defect." (Art. 173.) As to the nature of the difference, he says: "The labial rowel ooze readily becomes the consonant way, and between them there is a shade of sound allied to both, but a variety of the latter, and a consonant, becanse it has the power of forming a single syllable with a vowel, which two vowels cannot do. . . . . The guttural vowel pique may become the guttural liquid yea, as in minion, and between the two lies the guttural coalescent in aisle, eye, boy. The consonant relation of the coalescents is shown in the combinations how well, $\mathrm{m} y$ years, in which it is difficult to tell where the coalescent ends. A comparison of the former (or how-ell) with hâwell, and the latter (or my-ears) with mâ-years, will show their affinity. A coalescent between vowels is apt to form a fulcrum, by becoming a morecomplete consouant. Compare (emp)loyer
with lanyer." (Arts. 163-j.) I think
 но'u" Le ) for how well, how ell, Hovell, alld (mu'i-Jii'zs, mo'i-ii'zs) for my years, my ears. Similar difficulties occur in lying ( $10^{\prime} i i^{-}-i q$ ), and French païn, faïenee, loyal (pái-iea fái-iass lói-iál), not (luáiíl), with a long (i), without force gliding and diphthong. ising each way, which the hyphen tends to make plainer. The English loyal
 I think, (lo'i•sel), and certainly not (las.Jel). Similarly for employer, lawyer (emplo' $\left.i-\mathfrak{c}, l_{\mathrm{A}} \cdot \mathrm{Je}\right)$.

2 c . and 26 c . in $z a y$, yea, are certainly ( $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{J}$ ), but whether or not in addition (Luw, Liv) cannot be affirmed.

3 c . and 27 c . are certainly (wh, Jh ). Unfortunately the sounds are departing. See the citation ( $1112, b^{\prime}$ ), where it appears that Professor Haldeman never hears (wh) in English without a following (w) ; and, as appears by his example, he does not hear ( Jh ) without a following ( J ). But, translating his symbols, he says, "(wh) occurs in several Vesperiau languages, and the whistle which Duponceau attributes to the (lena-pe), Delaware, language, is this sound (wh‘dec) heart, (ndee) my heart, (wh'de ${ }^{`}$ Hhiim) strawberries, with flat ('d). In the Wyandot (wondot), (salakwh" $u$ ) it burrows, it occure before a whispered vowel. Conipare Penobscot (nekwhdo-s) six, (whta ufak) ear, (whta uagollh) ears." (Art. 457.) "This (whd) shows that the (w) put in (whwen) is not by defect of ear, which might cause it to be inferred beside the vocal (d). The frequency of the whispered vowels is curious." - Prof.H.'s MS. note to proof.

5c. in $h \mathrm{~m}$ seems to be ( mh ), $h \mathrm{~m}=$ (нmh), or perhaps (4mmb). "One form of Eng. (mh) often accompanies a smile with closed lips-an incipient laugh reduced to a nasal puff; to the other (mh-m) a true ( m ) is added, when it becomes an exelamation-sometimes replaced with (nh-n)."-MS. addition.
$16 \mathrm{c} ., 17 \mathrm{c} ., 18 \mathrm{c}$. are varicties of ( r ), but it is difficult exactly to identify them. "The Greek and Latin R was trilled, as described by the ancients, and this accords with European practice. The letter ' $r$ ' therefure means this sound. We have heard trilled $r$ in Albanian, Armenian (in part). Arabic, Chaldee, Ellenic, Illyrian, Wallachian, IIungarian, Kussian, Catalonian, Turkish
(in part), Islandic, Hindustance, Bengalee, Tamil, and other languages in the pronunciation of natives." (Art. 500.) Probably ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{n}, ~ \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{rj}$ ) are here not distinguished, and the forcible form (.r) is not separated from that of moderate strength. "The trilled $r$ is assigned to Euglish as an initial, although many people with an Euglish vernacular cannot pronounce it. Dr. James Rush would have the trill reduced in English to a single tap of the tongue against the palate. This we indicate by $\dot{\mathrm{r}}$, with a dot above." (Ait. 501.) This faint trill would be our (Lr); but the English. I believe, do not strike the palate at all when saring (r). Mr. Bell, as we have seen ( $1098, b$ ), denies the trill in English altogether, and gives us ( $\mathbf{r}_{0}$ ). "The Spanish (South American) $r$ in perro dog, as distinguished from the common trilled $r$ of pēro but, seems to be untrilled, and to have the tongue pressed flatly, somewhat as in English z, and doubled. as in more-rest. It may have arisen from an attempt to yotacise $r$. We mark it $c$ (or, if trilled, r ) with a line below, in case it is distinet from the next." (Art. 501a.) Now the Spanish $r$ in perro is what the Spanish Academy (Ortografia de la lengua Castellana, 7th ed. Madrid, 1792, p. 70) calls R fuerte. Prince L. L. Bonaparte says that it is found in Basque, and calls it an "alveolar $r$," which seems to be my (r). The common ( r ) in Basque is generally used as a euphonic insertion to save hiatus, as in English luw $(r)$ of the land. Mr. Bristed (Transactions of the American Philological Association for 1871, p. 122-3) talks of "the apparent negroism prevalent in Cuba of substituting a vocalized $r$ for the strongly trilled final $r$, e.g. amaw (or something very like it) for amar,' compare Mr. Thomas's Creole French r ( $1155, a^{\prime}$ ). On the authority of his son, just returned from Spain, Mr. Bristed adds that in Madrid there is "a slurring of medial $r$," and that "the Andalusian dialect tends to drop final letters, even $r$." Prof. Haldeman may mean $\left(r_{o}\right)$. "Many of my sounds were heard casually, and must be aceepted as open to correction from further obser-vation."-MS. additiou. He proceeds: "Armenian and Turkish have a smooth (i.e. an untrilled) tactual $r$, much like the Spanish $r r$, if not the same, and, with that, requiring farther investigation and comparison. English smooth $r$ in curry,
acre（a－cr），begr，grey，curt，is formed by much less contaet than the European and Asiatic $r$ requires．It is the true liquid of the $s$ contact，and allied to the vowel in $u p$ ，a character $r$ to be formed provisionally from italic $x$ ．＂ （Arts． $502-3$ ．）＇ A consonant subject to both a preceding and a succeeding in－ fluence may vary with the speaker， putting the same or a different $g r$ in ogre and grey．I was wrong in putting grey among my examples in § 503 ．It should be excluded．I adopted the single－tap $r$ on the authority of Dr． Rush，and because I have heard it ；but I use neither this nor any other trill in my English．This is the speech of my locality，when it is not influenced by contact with German and Irish modes of pronunciation，and it seems that Mr． Bell rejeets the trill．＂－MS．addition． This he then identifies with my（.$⿰ ㇒ ⿻ 二 丨 冂 刂)$ ． But my（ $(\ell)$ is only（ $a^{1}$ ）at most，followed permissively by（r）．Prof．Haldeman retains this $(\iota)$ in the second syllable of （Lrepuizentee＇shyn）in the specimen，and says it is＂due to the unaccented syl－ lable as compared with（plrintyd），etc．＂ In other cases he corrected it in the proof to（ $r$ ），which I have given as （ $\mathrm{rr}^{\prime}$ ）for uniformity．Perhaps my diffi－ culties arise from the Professor＇s not trilling his（ r ）as I really do．＂A more open smooth $r$ is found in cur， fur，far，more．Mr．Ellis regards fur as $f$ with this open $r$ ，without a vowel between．．．．We regard fur as having the opon vowel $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$（with which the con－ sonant is allied）short，the quantity being confined to the consonant（ $f u r=$ fiv $\int^{\circ}$ ），and the tongue moving from the vowel to the consonant position． ＇I＇he same open consonant occurs in arm，worm，turn，ore ；and although， for a particular purpose，we have cited arm as long，it contains a short vowel （ $\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{Cr}} \mathrm{r}^{-m}$ ）and long or medial consonant． If we write＇rn for $u$ un and f ＇r or fr for fur，we certainly cannot represent for，four，in the same manner．More－ over we may dissyllabise pr－ay on a trilled or a close $r$ ，and monosyllabise it paray with the most open．At one time the discussion of the English let－ ters led to a eurious result．When the difference betwe $n$ the open of tirry （from tar）and the close one of the verb tarry was ascertained，an identity of vowel and of consonant was repre－ sented，－a greater error than to spell more and moor，fairy and ferry alike，
or pres－d for prest．＂（Arts．505－9．）I feel obliged，from the identifications made by Prof．Haldeman，to transcribe 16 c ．by（ Lr ）， 17 e ．by（ $(x)$ ，and 18 c ．by（ x ）， but I am not at all satisfied with the transcription．I think the sound 17c． is sometimes（ $\partial^{l}$ ），sometimes（ $\mathrm{Lr}_{0}{ }^{1}$ ），some－ times（ $\partial^{1}\left[{ }^{1}{ }_{0}{ }^{1}\right.$ ）；and that 18 c ．may be （ $\partial, \mathrm{a}, \partial \mathrm{h}$ ）or $\left(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{ol}}\right)$ ，or one of the first followed by the second．These are points of extreme difficulty，partly arising from the involuntary interfe－ rence of orthographical reminiscences with phnuetic observations．

Prof．Haldeman made the following observations on the proof，after reading the above remarks：＂There is a negro perversion of more to（moa）．I think you admit too little difference between awe and or，like Bloomfield－
In earliest hours of dark and hooded morn， Ere yet one rosy cloud bespeaks the dawn，

Still foremost thou the dashing stream to cross，
And tempt along the animated horse ；．．．．
＂I do not consider any Englisk $r$ open enough to constitute a vowel，but I think I have heard a coaleseent（＇r）＂ ［the acute bolongs to the preceding element with which it forms a diph－ thong］，＂forming a reversed diphthong， in a dialect of Irish，in gé，gédh，or geodle a goose．As I recal it，it is a monosyllab between the English syl－ labs gay and gray，the $r$ open and untactual and so near to（a）that the result would be $g(\partial) a y$ were this not a dissyllab like claw－y besides cloy．＂As will be shewn hereafter，or is used in American comic books to represent aw （aA）just as much as in Enolish，and likewise $r$ omitted，and er is also used for the faintest sound of（＇h）．

21c．and 22c．also present difficulties in transcription．＂The liquids of the palatal contact are a kind of J（ycu） made at the palatal point，and as Eng． $x, v$ ，and $r, z$ are permutable，so $s$ falls into $f\left(\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{l}}\right)$ ，and its surd aspirate into $\boldsymbol{f}$（sh）．Hence the word soldier （ $=$ soldyr or soldyar）is apt to fall into soldy $x$ ，and nature（ $=$ net－${ }^{-} \mathrm{y} x$ ，netyy $\tau$ or nety $x$ ）into nete $x$ or netrox．＂（Arts． 518，519．）From this 1 consider y to represent a form of（J）which is still nearer to（i），with therefore the tongue slightly lower than for（ J ），so that（ $\mathrm{J}_{1}$ ） would be its best sigu，and＂$y$ will then be（ $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{h}$ ）．According to the same habit which obliges I＇rof．Haldeman to say
(whw-, JhJ-) we necessarily have $\left(\mathrm{J}_{1} \mathrm{hJ}_{1}\right)$. Hence his examples must be transcribed (solds $J_{1 L} \mathrm{r}$, solds $y_{1} y_{L} \mathrm{r}$,


The remaining consonants present no difhenlty.
11. in huy. "Many deny that $h$ is a consonant, because 'it is not made by contact or interruption.' But when the breath is impelled through an aperture which obstructs it, there is interruption, and if we vary the impulse we can make English oo and wo with the same aperture. . H, h, is the common English and German $h$, in the syllables heid, hat, hast, hose. $\phi$ is for the eighth Hebrew letter hheth . . . and is commonly called an emphatic $h$ and is often represented by $h h$. As heard by us, it is an enforced, somewhat close $h$, with a tendency to scrape along the throat, and, consequently, it is not a pulmonic aspirate. . . . The Florentine aspirate casa, misericordia, chi, we have casually heard, and believe it to be $\phi$, and also the Splanish $j, x$, before $a, o, u$, as in jabon soap $=$ れă'bón, and the geographical name San Juan ( $=$ săntvian) in English—s.nnv̌von." (Arts.
$553,565,567$.) The identification of $\uparrow$ with ( $h$ ), see ( $1130, b$ ), and the statement of its relation to $h$, seem to shew that this h is my (нh). The examples are then meant for (habhon, sanhwhan, sanwhwon), but I think that Spanish $j$ differs from $(k)$. Prince L. L. Bonaparte considers it to be (kh), and identifies the Florentine sound with a 'vocal' aspirate ( $1136, c$ ), my ( $\mathbf{H}$ ). Prof. Haldeman observes on the use of ( H ) for me, ( $\mathrm{H} \mathrm{H}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ) for Smart, and ( Hb ) for himself and Sweet in the comparative specimen given below:-"Yon assign three kinds of initial $h$ to four speakers, where I think the ear would give the same result, except where $h$ is dropt. I pronounce English here and German hier exactly alike as far as the $r$, and I suppose you do the same, but the smooth English $r$ gives a dissyllabic tendency, which is absent from the German form." I believe I call the English word ( $\mathrm{H} i i^{\prime}$ ) and the German (Hhiir), but may occasionally say (Hiir, nii'r mhii'r), which are all anglicisms. I sometimes fall into (rh) in English. For Smart's (hih), see No. 56 of his scheme below, ( $1204, b$ ).

## Henry Sweet.

Mr. Henry Sweet adopts Mr. Bell's Visible Speech Symbols and my palaeotype, and kindly himself wrote out his specimen in palaeotype, so that there are no difficulties of interpretation. It is necessary to obscre his higher (c) or ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), and his ( o ) with a ( u ) rounding or ( $o_{u}$ ), his consonantal termination of (iis, uuw), his adranced ( $\rho, \rho$ ) or ( $, \rho, \rho$ ), his forms of (ee'j, oo' $w$ ) as (éy, ${ }^{\circ} 0_{u}$ ), his acceptance of (x) as (əh) in ( $\Lambda^{\prime} \partial \mathrm{h}$, Ee'วh, evoh), etc., his constant use of (', 'h), even rounded, as ('hw), his analysis of his diphthongs for ( $\partial^{\prime} i, \partial^{\prime} u$ ) as ( Br ' $y, \mathfrak{r}^{\prime} y$ ) and ( $\quad \infty \infty^{\prime} 0$ ), and his lengthened consonants, as (ssmm, lett). He uses ( a , E ) where I use ( a , e), and altogether his promunciation differs in many minute shades from mine, although in ordinary conversation the difference would probably be passed by unnoticed, so little accustomed are we to dwell on differences which vex the phonologist's spirit. This little passage presents one of the most remarkable analyses of spoken sounds which has yet been published.

In returning me the proof corrected, he wrote: "I am inclined to accept your analysis of $c h$ as ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) for my own pronunciation also. I think the second element of the (aui) diphthong may be the simple voice-glide rounded ("h $w$ ) instead of the mid-back ( 0 ), (smoo'ondz) would therefore be written (s.mo'hundz). In the same way I feel inclined to substitute the simple voicc-glide unrounded (" h ) for the ('oh) wherever it forms the second element of a diphthong. I leave it to you to make the alterations or not." As 1 Ir .

Sweet, on account of leaving England, was unable to correct a revise of the example, I preferred following the proof as it left his own hands, and content myself with noting these minute points. But it is worth while observing what extremely rough approximations to ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ), such as ('hj, 'hw), when added to any one of the sounds
 æ æh), serve to recall diphthongs of the (ái, áu) classes to the mind with sufficient clearness to be readily intelligible.

## B. II. Smart.

Mr. B. H. Smart's "Walker Remodelled . . . . exhibiting the pronunciation of words in unison with more accurate schemes of sounds than any yet furnished, according to principles carefully and laboriously investigated, 1836," contains the most minute account of English sounds that I can find in pronouncing dictionaries, though very far below what is presented in Visible Speech or by Prof. Haldeman. It seemed therefore best to contrast his representation of the same passage, by turning out each word in his dictionary, and transliterating it into palacotype. For this purpose it is necessary to identify his symbols as explained in his schemes and principles. The numbers of his symbols in the schemes, with the examples, are sufficient to identify them, so that their forms need not be given. The same numbers also refer to the paragraphs in his 'principles,' giving the detailed deseription, from which I am obliged to cite some passages, although the book is so well known and readily accessible. Mr. Smart is only responsible for what I put between inverted commas.
> "Scheme of the Yowels."
> "The Alphabetic Towels, by nature long, though liable to be short or shortened."

1. accented as in gate, gait, pay. This somud is recognized as (ee'j), but made (ee ii) by Smart, see ( $1108, a^{\prime}$ ), or perlaps (eéj).
2. unaccented as in aerial, retail, gateway. "This taperiug off into No. 4 cannot be heard ill the unaccented alphabetic $a$, owing to its shorter quantity," it is therefore (e) short or ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{e}}$ ) of medial length, probably the first in aerial, and the second in the other words. But I hear (geetwéj), which, however, I suppose he takes as (geelitwee). But see No. 13.
3. accented as in me, mett, meat, is certainly (ii), but whether distinguished always from (ii) is uncertain.
4. unaccented as in defy, pedigree, galley. "The quantity is not always equally short: in pedigree, for instance, it is not so short in the third syllable as
in the second. Generally it is as short as No. 15 , with which it is identical, except that No. 15 is essentially short, while the unaccented alphabetical No. 4 is by nature capable of quantity. The word indivisibility must in strict theory be said to have one and the same vowelsound in each syllable; but practical views rendering the distinction necessary, we consider the vowel in three of the syllables [1st, 3rd, 5th], to be essentially short, and the vowel in the remaining four to be naturally long, although, from situation, quite as short as No. 15." Here then slort (i, $i$ ) are confused. The 'practical views' are in fact that No. 15, the 'essentially short' ( $i$ ), is found gliding on to a consonant, and No. 4, the 'essentially long' (i), is found at the end of a syllable. The distinction is false; in this word (i) occurs throughout, and (i) would give a strangely foreign effect, the sound being (i:ndi,vizzijbili,ti), although ( $e^{l}$ ) or (a) might be used in the 2nd, 4th, 6th and 7 th syllables rather
than (i). But in consequence of Smart's distinction, I shall transeribe his No. 4 by (i) as (indivizibiliti).
5. accented as in wide, defied, defy. "This sound is diphthongal. In the mouth of a well-bred Londoner it begins with the somnd heard in No. 39 , but withont sounding the $r$, and tapers off into No. 4." This gives (a'i) or ( $\mathrm{o}^{\prime} i$ ) ; I take the former. Prince L. L. Bonaparte thinks that ( $x^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ) is meant. Sce below No. 19. "Some allege its composition to be No. 23 and No. 4," that is (ái, ái), "but this is northern; while others make it to be No. 25 and No. 4," that is (A'i, A'i), "which is still more rustic. The afthrmation ay is, however, a union of the sounds 25 and 4 , at least as that word is commonly pronounced; though in the House of Commons, in the phrase, 'the ayes have it,' it seems to be an ancient custom to pronounce the plural word as uniting the sounds Nos. 25,4 , $60[=(A A \cdot i z)]$, or as it might be written oys, rhyming with boys."
6. unaccented as in idea, fortifies, fortify. "This nnaccented sound differs from the foregoing by the remission of accent only." It is often, however, extremely short. It does not seem to occur to orthoepists generally that diphthongs may be very short indeed, and yet possess all their properties, with the relative lengths of their parts. In likewise, the first diphthong, although accented, is generally much shorter than the second; in idea, the diphthong is often searcely touched, but is always quite sensible.
7. accented as in no, boat, foe, soul, blow. "In a Londoner's mouth, it is not always quite simple, but is apt to contract towards the end, almost as 00 in too." Now this seems to imply that the vanish to $(\mathrm{u})$ is not received; that (oo) is intended, and ( $\left.\dot{o} \mathrm{o}_{2} \mathrm{u}\right)$ mnintentional. Still as he admits (ée $(i)$, I shall take his No. 7 to be ( $\dot{o} \mathrm{o}_{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{u}$ ).
8. unaccented as in obey, follor. "In remitting the accent, and with accent its length, No. 8 preserves its specific quality, with no liability to the diphthongal character to which the accented sound is liable." Hence I transcribe (o).
9. accented as in cube, due, suit. "Though for practical purposes reckoned among the vowels, No. 9 is, in truth, the syllable yōo, composed of the consonant element 56 and the vowel element
27." This view gets over all phonetic difliculties, and is very rough. I transcribe (Juu).
10. nuacecuted as in usurp, aguc. "Although a diphthong can scareely lose in length, without losing its diphthongal character, yet a syllable composed of a consonant and a rowel may in general be something shortened." I transcribe ( su ). The passage shews the vague phonetic knowledge which generally prevails.

## "The Essentially Short Fowels."

11. accented as in man, chapman. This "differs in quality as well as in quautity from both No. 1 or No. 2, and No. 23,-it is much nearer the latter than the former,-indeed so near, that in theory they are considered identical; but it is not, practically, so broad as No. 23." That is, his No. 11, which we must identify with ( $x$ ), lics between (ee i ) or (e) and (a), but is theoretically identified with the latter. The way in which in dialectal writing (æ, a) are confused under one sign $a$, has caused me much tronble, and I have found many correspondents apparently unable to discover the difference in sound.
12. unaccented as in accept, chapman. This "differs in quality from the preceding by verging to wards the sound of No. 19 , its distinct utterance being near to No. 11, its obscure or colloquial utterance carrying it entirely into No. 19. In final syllables the more obscure sound prevails; in initial syllables the more distinct." Hence in the former I transcribe ( $\partial^{\infty}$ ), in the latter ( $x^{\jmath}$ ). But these indicate helplessuess on the part of the phonologist. Prince L. L. Bonaparte makes the former (a) and the latter ( $\infty$ ), see No. 19.
13. accented as in lent. This "in theory is reckoned the same sound as No. 2. That it does not differ from it in quality may be perecived by the effect of a cursory pronneciation of elimate, ultimate, ete., which reduce to climet, ultimet, etc." That is, Smart coufuses (e, e), just as he confinsed ( $i$, i), see No. 4. But while the confusion of ( $\varepsilon$, e) is tolerably possible, that of ( $C, \mathrm{E}$ ) is barely so. Hence I transcribe No. 13 as (c), and not as ( E ).
14. unaceented as in silent. This "is liable to be sounded as No. 10.". I transcribe (e), though perhaps ( $\mathrm{c}^{1}$ ) or even $(y)$, to allow of confusion with ( $i$ ),
might be more correct. But Smart may not have intended to recognize any intermediary between (e) and (i).
15. accented as in pit. This "in theory is reckoned the same as No. 4, and that it does not much differ in quality may be perceived by the word counterfeit, in which No. 4 in the last syllable shortens itself into No. 15." This is (i) certainly.
16. unaccented as in sawpit. This "differs from the foregoing by the remission of accent only," and will hence be also written ( $i$ ).
17. accented as in not, common. This "in theory is reckoned the same as No. 25, and that it does not differ in quality may be perceived by observing that salt, fault, etc., though prowounced with No. 25 in slow utterance, are liable to be shortened into No. 17." That is, Smart confuses ( $A, 0$ ) just as he confused ( $e$, e) and ( $i, i$ ). Tet be speaks of (AA) as a broad, not a lengthened, utterance of $o$ in eost, broth, etc., and recommends a " medium between the extremes." Hence I transeribe 17 as (A), 25 as (AA), and this "medium" as ( $\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{A}}$ ).
18. unaccented as in pollute, command, common. This "differs in quality from the preceding by verging towards the sound No, 19, more or less, according as the pronunciation is solemn or colloquial. In final syllables the sound No. 19 under the character o is, in general, so decided, that even in the most solemn speaking any other sound would be pedantic." These cases be marks especially, as in common, and I transcribe ( $\partial$ ) simply. "In initial and other syllables, the sound preserves its character with some distinctness, as in pollute, pomposity, demonstration;" here then I transcribe $\left(\rho^{\circ}\right)$, "yet even in these we find a great tendency to the sound No. 19, and in the prefix com- the tendeucy is still stronger." Wherever he marks this stronger tendeney to indistinctness. I transcribe ( $\partial$ ) rather than ( $\partial^{\circ}$ ). Prince L. L. Bomaparte thinks that (v) is meant by the $o$ in pollute, and (o) by the $o$ in common, see No. 19.
19. accented as in nut, custard. "No. 19, No. 39 (without sounding the $r$ ), and No. 24, are all, in theory, the same, the last however more or less approaehing the sound No. 23, according as the speaker is more or less distinct. They are all modifications of
what may be called the natural vowel, -that is to say, the rowel which is uttered in the easiest opening of the mouth." But whether these 'modifications' are ( $\partial, \mathfrak{a}, \mathrm{e}$, oh), etc., there is nothing to shew. Hence I transcribe No. 19 by (ә), which, to me, approaches most to the natural vowel, and No. 24 by ( $\partial^{a}$ ). Prince L. L. Bonaparte, who has made a careful study of Smart, writes to me: "Although in your transeription of Smart $(0)$ is the ouly one of the four signs ( $(x, \infty, \varepsilon, \infty)$ which occurs, it seems to me that Smart represents (a) by No. $24 a$ in manna, (ə) by the first No. 12 or $a$ in accept, (c) by the first No. 18 or $o$ in pollute, and (a) by No. $19 u$ in nut, or by the second No. $12 a$ in chapman, and second No. 180 in common. The three signs, No. 19, the second No. 12, and the first No. 18, see also No. 20, are synonymous. They represent Smart's 'natural vowel,' which is, as he says in No. 19, merely ur without sounding the final $r$. In No. 36 he says that $e r, i r, o r, u r, y r$, are necessarily pronounced $u$. Hence the words sir, bird, first, see No. 35, contain Smart's natural vowel, your (o), and not your ( 0 ). In fact, Smart says that the first No. 12 is to No. 24 as No. 11 is to No. 23, see Nos. 12 and 24, and that No, 24 is a mean between Nos. 19 and 23 , just as the first No. 12 is between Nos. 11 and 19. He also says in No. 18, that the first sound of No. 18 lies between No. 17 and No. 19. Hence the first sound of No. 18 is (e), in the same way as No. 24 is (a), and the first No. 12 is ( $\partial$ ), and the second No. 12, second No. 18 and No.19, are ( 0 ), which is his natural vowel." This is extremely ingenious, and logically worked out, but it depends on the hypothesis that Smart pronounced No. 19 with the same vowel that Bell used in pronouncing err ( $\infty$ ), which is different from the vowel Bell used in pronouncing urn up ( a ). And Smart's No. 35 leads me to suppose that he did not understand the nature of Bell's distinction ( 2, a $)$, although be felt that there was some distinction. I doubt much indeed whether Smart had any clear conception of the four different sounds ( $\partial, a, v, \infty$ ), which seem to have been first diseriminated by Mr. M. Bell, as the result of his theory of lingual distinctions. And hence 1 feel that to write Smart's key-words, No.

12 accept chapman, No. 18 pollnte common, No. 19 nut, No. 24 papa, manna, Messiah, as (okse pht tshe p mon ; pul meens Messo'i•x), although possibly correct, is very probably ineorrect. I do not think he said (noot), though this is a cockneyism. I do not think he said (papaa ma•na), for unaceented (a) is very rare and very ugly. I do not think he said (okse -pt ), though he may have said (pel_suu't). In this state of doubt, 1 have chosen symbols which seem to mark his own uncertainty, on the principle of (1107, d), namely, ( $x^{0}$ ksept tshe pmoxn;
 Mesa'i $\cdot{ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ ), where the double sign in fact represents that the sound was felt to be intermediate in each ease, but to have more of that represented by the large letter, though Smart would allow either sound to be used purely; but if so, he thought that of the large letter preferable. Except as regards nut, which may have been Mr. Bell's (a) rather than my (ə), and may really have been in Mr. Smart's month ( $\infty$ ), though I ean hardly think the last probable,-I hare no reasonable doubt as to the propricty of my symbols. I thought it right, however, to give the Prince's very ingenious hypothesis. He was at the pains to transcribe the whole example according to his theory; but the reader can so readily supply the necessary changes that I have not given it.
20. unaccented as in walnut, cireus. This "differs from the preceding only by the remission of accent," and is hence transcribed (ә).
21. accented as in good, hood, "an incidental rowel." This, "essentially short, is, in other respects, identical with No. 27, the most contracted sound in the language." 'That is, Smart confuses ( $\mathrm{u}, u$ ) as be had previously confused (e, $e ; \mathrm{i}, i ; \mathrm{A}, 0$ ). It is necessary to transeribe (u), though I much doubt his having ever used it for No. 21 in actual speech.
22. unaccented as in ehildhood, "an incidental vowel." This "differs from the preceding only by the remission of aceent," and is hence trauseribed (u).

[^8]ah. "In almost all languages but the English, this is the alphabetic sound of letter $a$." It is transeribed (aa).
24. unaccented as in papa, manna, Messiah. This "differs from the preceding [No. 23] not only in quantity but in quality, by verging to the natural rowel [No. 19], and in colloquial utterance quite identifying with it. It fluctuates between No. 23 and this natural vowel No. 19, just as $\breve{a}$ [a in chapman, the second No. 12] fluctuates between No. 11 and No. 19." It is transeribed ( $\partial^{2}$ ), see No. 19. Prince L. L. Bonaparte thinks that (a) is meant, see No.19. Smart uses No. 24 for French $e$ mutet in such words as coup de grace, aide de camp, which seems due to orthographical prejudice, as dü might have led the ordinary reader to say (duu).
25. accented as in law, the noun sub. awe, etc. This is (AA) without doubt.
26. unaccented as in jackdaw. This "differs from the preceding by remission of accent, and such shortening of its quantity as it will bear," by which I understand that it is generally medial ( $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{A}}$ ).
27. accented as in pool. "The sound of the letter $u$ in Italian and many other languages," that is (uu).
28. unaecented as in whirlpool, cuckoo. This "differs from the preceding by the remission of the accent, and such reduction of quantity as it will bear so as not to identify with No. 22, for whirlpool must not be pronounced as if it were whirlpull. Where, however, it is not followed in the same syllable by a consonant, as in cuckoo, luxury, it may be as short as utterance can make it." Here the nemesis of confusing ( $u, u$ ) appears. It will be neeessary to transcribe ( $\mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{u}}$ ) in the first case, as of medial length, and (il) in the second. He writes (lak shLJuari), which is extremely artificial.
29. accented as in toil, boy. This " is a diphthongal sound whose compouent parts are Nos. 25 and 4." That is, it is (as'i).
30. unaceented as in turmoil, footboy. This "differs from the preceding by the remission of accent, but its diphthongal nature prevents any perceptible diflerence in quantity," so that the transcription (AA'i) will be retained.
31. aceented as in noun, now, brown. This is " a diphthongal sound of whose component parts are Nos. 23 and 27 ; at least, is the former of the two component sounds nearer to No. 23 than No. 25 , though Walker makes the combination to be Nos. 25 and 27." That is, Smart analyses it as (áau), and not as (aa'u). He certainly could not have said (aan) with the first element long, but he had no means of writing (áu). Walker says: "The first or proper sound of this diphthong is composed of the a in ball, and the oo in woo, rather than the $u$ in bull," that is ( $\mathrm{AA}^{\prime} \mathrm{un}$ ). It will be seen that Mr. I. Pitman (p. 1183, key) uses ou $=\left(0^{\prime} u\right)$ as his analysis of the diphthong down to this day. I have never heard it in received prommeiation.
32. nnaccented, as in pronoun, nutbrown. This "differs from the preceding only by the remission of accent," and hence (áau) is retained as the transcription.
"The Vowels which terminate in Gut-
tural Vibration, by nature long,
though liable to be shortened."
33. accented, equivalent to No. 23 and $r$, as in ardent, that is, "No. 23, terminating in guttural vibration, . . . . . . . . there is no trill, but the tongue being curled back during the progress of the vowel preceding it, the sonnd becomes guttural, while a slight vibration of the back part of the tongue is perceptible in the sound." I don't pretend to understand any part of this observation. He also says: "the letter $r$ is sometimes a consonant, . . . . . and sometimes a guttural vowel-sound," and "that the trill of the tongue may be used wherever the following dictionary indieates the guttural vibration, is not denied; but it cannot be used at such places without carrying to correct ears an impression of peculiar habits in the speaker,-either that he is foreign or provincial, Irish or Scotch, a copier of bad declaimers on the stage, or a speaker who in correcting one extreme has unwarily incurred another. The extreme among the vulgar in London doubtlessily is, to omit the $r$ altogether -to convert far into (faa), hard into (hhaad), cord into (kasd), lord into (ladd), etc.;-an extreme which must be avoided as carefully as the strong trill of $r$ in an improper place." Under these circumstauces I trauscribe (') for
the " guttural vibration," or " guttural vowel-sound," whatever that may be, and own myself, and almost every one I hear speak, to belong to the extreme of the vulgar in saying (aa) for ( $\mathrm{a} a^{\prime}$ ), although 11 often hear and say (aalr). Hence No. 33 will be (aa').
34. unaccented as in arcade, dollar. This "differs from the preceding, both in quantity (though this cannot be much) and in quality, by verging towards unaccented No. 39. Indeed when the letters ar occur in a final nnaccented syllable, as in dollur, it would be a puerile nicety to attempt distinctness." I transcribe ( $\mathrm{aa}^{a^{2} \text { ), }}$, when he writes "ar equivalent to" No. 23 followed by the guttural vibratiou, that is, the sound (aa) merely verging to ( $\partial^{\circ}$ ); and ( $\partial^{\prime}$ ) otherwise.
35. accented as in ermine, virtue. This "lies between Nos. 41 and 39, and in mere theory would not be distinguished from the former." I shall transcribe it (e'), though I am sure that it is usually a perfectly simple rowel-sound, and Smart gives no means of exactly determining it. Of course he may have distinguished it as ( $0^{\prime \prime}$ ). See No. 19.
36. unaccented as in commerce, letter, nadir. This " is scarcely ever heard without some corruption of its quality in a final syllable, where the letters $e r, i$, or, $u r, y r$, will almost necessarily be pronounced ur," No. 39. "This necessity is less in some words than in others, in commerce, for instance, than in letter." Hence I transcribe ( $\mathrm{e}^{{ }^{\jmath}}, \partial^{\prime}$ ) in the two cases.
37. accented as in order. This, "which is equivalent to No. 25 and r," that is to ( AA '), "occurs frequently in the language, often requiring to be distinguished from No. 47. For instance form ( $\mathrm{fA}_{\mathrm{A}}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{m}$ ), meaning figure, must be distinguished in pronunciation from form (foo $\mathrm{a}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}$ ), meaning a bench." I transcribe ( $A A^{\prime}$ ), though I generally hear (as) or (aALr).
38. unaccented as in stupor or in sailor. This "is seldom distinct." I transcribe ( $\mathrm{AA}^{{ }^{\prime}}$ ) and ( $a^{\circ}$ ) according to his marks, on the principle of No. 34.
39. accented as in urgent. This " is the natural vowel terminating in the guttural vibration," and is transcribed ( 0 '), though how this differs from ( ${ }^{( }$) or ('h), or any one of the somnds discnssed in No. 19, it is difficult to say.
40. unacceuted as iu sulphur. This
＂differs from the preceding only by the remission of accent，＂and is，therefore， still transcribed（ $a^{\circ}$ ）．

41．accented as in mare，＂equivalent to Nos． 1 and 30 ，＂that is（ $e^{e} L^{1} \cdot{ }^{\circ}$＂），but surely the（Li）must be omitted and at least（cc•⿰㇒⿻土一⿰丿𠃌⿱⿰㇒一乂⿳⺈⿴囗十一 ）said，and this is strange．I transeribe（ce ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ）．

42．unaceented as in welfare，＂equi－ valent to Nos． 2 and 39 ，＂that is（eo＇）．

43．accented as in mere，＂equivalent to Nos． 3 and 39 ，＂that is（iis＇）．

44．unaccented as in atmosphere， ＂equivaleut to Nos． 4 and 39，＂that is （ia＇）．

45．accented as in mire，＂equiva－ lent to Nos． 5 and 39，＂that is（ $a^{\prime} 1 \cdot{ }^{\circ} \%$ ．

46．unaccented as in empire，＂equiva－ lent to Nos． 6 and 39 ，＂that is（ $0^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{i} 0^{\circ}$ ）．

47．accented as in more，＂equivalent to Nos． 7 and 39，＂that is（oo $\mathrm{L}^{\circ} \cdot{ }^{\circ}$ ）， meaning，perhaps，（ $00^{\circ} \partial^{\prime}$ ），as the（ L ） could not have been used，see No． 41 ．

48．unaccented as in therefore，equi－ valent to Nos． 8 and 39 ，＂that is，（ $0{ }^{\prime}$ ） ．

49．accented as in mure，＂equivalent to Nos． 9 and 39 ，＂or（ suu＇$\partial$＇）．

50．unaccented as in figure，＂equiva－ lent to Nos． 10 and 39，＂or（Juə＇）．

51．accented as in poor，＂equiva－ lent to Nos． 27 and 39 ，＂or（uu＇0 ${ }^{\prime}$ ）．

52．unaccented as in black－a－moor， ＂equivalent to Nos． 28 and 39 ，＂or（ua＇）．

53．accented as in power，＂equiva－ lent to Nos． 31 and 39 ，＂or（áau‘o＇）．

54．unaccented，as in cauli－flower， ＂equivalent to Nos． 32 and 39 ，＂or （áauə＂）．

In reference to Nos． 41 to 54 －of which it is said，＂it is only by being followed by guttural vibration that these sounds differ respectively from Nos． 1 to 10，27，28，31，and $32^{\prime \prime}$－it should be remembered that Mr．Smart does not distinguish properly between （i i $, e \mathbf{e}, o \circ, \mathrm{u} u{ }_{i}$ ，and hence the changes which Mr．Bell，myself，and others notice （1099，$a^{\prime}$ ）in the action of the diph－ thongising（ ${ }^{\prime} h$ ）upon preceding（i，$e, o$ ， ${ }^{*}$ ），were necessarily passed over by Mr． Smart．IIe says indeed：＂It has been said that there is a palpable difference between the rowel－sound in payer， player，slayer，and that in care，fair； hair，shurc．What difference may be made in New York I know not；but I know that none is made in London，nor can be made without that peculiar effect which shows an effort to distinguish what in general is necessarily undis－ tinguishable，＂but that he did feel a
difference is，I think，certain from the following remarks：＂Identical，how－ ever，as they are，except as regards the peculiarity noticer，the practical ne－ cessity for considering them distinct elements will be perceived in the com－ parison of the first syllables of va－rious， sc－rious，fi－ring，to－ry，fu－ry，with the first syllables of va－eant，se－eant，fonal， to－tal，$f_{u}$－gitive；an identity of these syllables in pronunciation is decidedly provincial ；the true utterance of the former is rare－ious，serc－ious，＂etc．， with Nos． 41 and 43，etc．＂The difference in riew will be rendered intelligible to those familiar with French pronuuciation，by comparing the sound of dear pronounced correctly as an English word，with that of dire pronounced correctly as a French word． In both the vowel commences after the $d$ precisely in the same way，but in the French word it remains pure，unmixed with the $r$ ，which begins a new syllable formed with what is called the mute $e$ ， the word being pronounced（dii•ra${ }^{\text {a }}$ ），＂ ［vorvels Nos． 3 and 24，］＂or nearly so； while in the English word，the sound of the $r$（not the trilled $r$ as in French） blends itself with the $e$ during its pro－ gress．＂［I hear French（diir），English （dii＇），or（d $i i^{\prime} \mathrm{r}$ ）before a rowel．］＂So also in dear－ly，eare－ful，ete．，the ad－ dition of a syllable begimning with a consonant distinct from the $r$ making no difference to the previous syllable， the $r$ in that previous syllable blends itself with the vowel exactly as in dear， eare，etc．；and the only difference between dear－ly，eare－ful，etc．，and va－rious，se－rious，firry，to－ry，fu－ry， etc．，is，that in the latter the $r$ ，besides blending itself with the previous rowel， is also heard in the articulation of the vowel which begins the following syllable．＂［Hence I feel bound to transcribe（vee＇o＇rios，sii ${ }^{\prime}$＇rias），etc．， where I seem to say and hear（vee＇rios， sii＇rias），ete．］＂Of this blending of the $r$ with the previous vowel，it is further to be observed that the union is so smooth in polite utterance as to make it imperceptible where one ends and the other begins；＂［meaning，I suppose，that the diphthong is perfect， no interruption occurring in the glide， not even a slur，thus（eea＇）not（ee a $^{\text {＇}}$ ）， although his careful interposition of the accent mark（ee $\cdot \partial^{\prime}$ ），instead of putting it at the close（cea＇），gives a different impression，and always leads me to read
with a slur (ceə");] "while in rulgar pronunciation the former vowel breaks abruptly into the guttural sound, or into the vowel No. 24 used for the guttural," [meaning, I suppose, (ec ") ${ }^{\circ}$ ',
 mere cocknies this substitution of No. 24 for No. 34, or No. 40 , is a prevailing characteristic, and shonld be correeted by all who wish to adapt their habits to those of well-bred life." [Here he again becomes mysterious, separating his guttural vibration from his guttural vowel, with which be identified it in No. 33. As far as I can observe, and I have been constantly observing the use of $r$ by Englishmen for many years, this distinction is founded in error. I can understand, and hear, ( $\partial$, $\mathrm{or}_{\mathrm{o}}$, ər, e, $\mathrm{kr} \mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{o}}, \mathrm{vr}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{c}}$, ' r ), but the difference ( $\partial^{a}, \partial^{\prime}$ ) escapes me.] "It is, moreover, remarkable of these elements that each will pass on the ear either as one or two syllables, and this is signified in the schemes by the equivalent indication á'ur, íur,'" [=No. 1, accent, No. 39 ; and No. 5 , accent, No. 39 ; or (ee ' ${ }^{\prime}$ ', ə'i $\left.\cdot \partial^{\prime}\right)$ ], "where the mark of accent placed over the former part gives it the appearance of the first of two syllables, while the omission of the hyphen shows that the whole is pronounced as one." He refers liere to No. 134, where he says, that: "pay-er and may-or; li-ar, buy-er, and high-er; slow-er and grow-er; su-er and new-er; tru-er, brew-er, and do-er; bow-er and flow-er ; are perfect rhymes to mare, hire, lore, cure, poor, and hour." To

 truu $)$ e, bruu $\cdot \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \quad$ dun $\cdot \rho$ e, $\quad$ ba' $u^{\circ} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, fla' $(\cdot)$ ) $)$, where might be used for , are always dissyllabic ; but mayor $=$ mare precisely, $=\left(\right.$ mee' $\left.^{\prime}\right)$, and (loo', kiúu', pun') are distinctly monosyllabic, though diphthongal, while hire, hour, involving triphthongs, are looser respecting the final, so that ( $\operatorname{Hว}^{\prime} i^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime} u u^{\prime}$ ) or (на'i-h'h, a'u 'h) may be heard, but
 according to present usage, For past usage see examples from Shakspere, p. 951 . I acknowledge having heard Mr. Smart's semi-dissyllabism in some elderly people, and was much struek by it in the late Sir John Bowring's evidently much studied pronunciation, but I cannot recognize it in my own generation, and I was born in 1814.
55. "a slight semi-consonant sound
between No. 4 and No. 58, heard in the transition from certain consonant to certain vowel sounds: as in l'ute, j'ew, nat'ure, g'arment, k'ind." This "is a sound so short and slight as to be lost altogether in the mouth of an unpolished speaker, who says (luut, dzhuu, née [i•tshua'), or more commonly (née ${ }^{\mathrm{j}}{ }^{\circ}$ tsha'), garment, kind, etc., for l'ute, $j e w$, etc. On the other hand, there are persons who, to distinguish them. selves from the vulgar, pronounce No. 58 distinctly on the occasions which call for this slighter sound of No. 58 or No. 4. This affeeted pronunciation," [which he writes l-yoot, j-yoo, n $a^{\prime}$-ch—yoor, g—yar'ment, k-yind.] "be it observed, is to be avoided with as much care as the slight sound, which in the mouth of an elegant speaker uaturally slides in between the consonantand the vowel, is to beimitated " I believe the sounds he means are ( $l_{L} i u$ ut,
 kjo'ind), but, in consequence of No. 58, I transcribe this "semi-consonant" by ( $\mathrm{L}^{\mathrm{J}}$ ). As respects its use after (sh), Prof. ILaldeman says: "If, by the conversion of $i$ into English $y$ or $z h$, o-be-di-ent becomes o-be-dyent (the writer's mode of speaking) or o-hedzhent, no speaker of real English ean preserve both $d z h$ and $i$; yet Walker has coined a jargon with such forms as o-be-je-ent, and cris-tshe-an-e-te. Similarly if 'omniscient' has an $s$, it has four syllables; if $s h$, it has but three. Compare the dissyllables Russia, Asia, conscience, and the trissyllables militia, malicious" (Anal. Orth. art. 311). Smart, using the transcriptions suggested, writes (o-bil-dient $=$ $o$-biid--Jent, krist--Jə ${ }^{æ} \mathrm{n}$ ), colloquially (krist-sh $\mathrm{J}^{\Re_{n}}$ ), where the separation of (t-sh) is inorganic, (kris:-ti-æn--i-ti, am-nish-i-ent, am-nis'si-ens, Eé ${ }^{\prime}$ ish-

 (Jas). I seem to say (obii•di-ent, $\mathrm{kr} i \cdot \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{t}$ shen, kri :sti,æ•niti kri:sرt, shi,æ.niti, omnish•i-ent, omnish• $i-$ ens, $E e$ she $E e$ :sh $i j æ \cdot t i k$, Rə $\operatorname{shen,~kə\cdot nshens,~}$ mili she, meli'shos). It seems that many of these changes of (s) into (sh) through (i) are in a state of transition, and that the stages are (-si-v, -s-Je, -shi-r, -shier, -she), and that those speakers who have learned to speak in any prior state have a sort of repulsion against a following one, and will never submit to it,-when they think of it,
that is, in 'carcful speaking,- leaving the change to be accomplished by the rising or some following generation. The admission of all pronumciations as now coexisting, instead of the stigmatisation of some as vulgar or as wrong, marks the peculiarity of my standpoint, whence I try to sce what $i s$, rather than decide what should be.

## "Scheme of the Consonants."

56. "h, as in hand, perhaps, vehement, is a propulsion of breath, which becomes roeal in the sound which follows it, this following sound being hence called aspirated." As 'propulsion' may be an 'elegant ' translation of 'jerk,' I transcribe ( H h h . "And the sonnd which follows is in our language always a vowel, except $w$ and $y$; for $w$ is aspirated in wheat, whig, etc., which are pronounced hwēat, huig, etc., and $y$ is aspirated in heu, huge, etc., which are pronounced hyōō, hyōōgc, etc." Hence I transcribe (Hihwiit, нhhruudzh). "It is to be further noted that the aspirate is never heard in English except at the beginning of syllables;" [that (izs) is really (izh h), and might therefore be well called a final aspirate, naturally never oecurred to him,] "and that in the following and all their derivatives $h$ is silent: heir, honcst, honour, hostler, hour, humble, and humour." The two last words are now most frequently aspirated, just as Smart aspirates herb, hospital, which may still be heard unaspirated fiom well-educated people. I heard a physician, speaking at a hospital public meeting latcly, constantly say (o'spitul).
57. "w, beginning a syllable without or with aspiration, as in $u$ e, berare, froward, $u$ heat equivalent to h $w$ eat, is a consonant having for its basis the most contracted of the rowel-sounds, namely No. 27, which sound, being partially obstructed by an inward action of the lips, and then given off by an outward action, is changed from a vowel to a consonant. A comparison of the French word oui, as a F'renehman pronounces it (viz. No. 28, No. 3, accent), with the English word we as an Englishman pronounces it, will show the difference between the vowel and the consonant." This is (w).
58. "y, beginning a syllable as in you, and this somnd is always to be undecrstood as present in Nos. 9, 10, 50, which are equivalent to $y$, with Nos.

27,28 , and 52 , is a consonant, having for its basis the slenderest of the vowel-sounds, namely, No. 3," [what is the precise difference between "the slenderest "and "the most contracted " of the rowel-sounds? Who would imagine them to be respectively (ii, un) and not (nu, ii) ?] " which sound being partially obstructed by an inward action of the jaw carrying the back of the tongue against the soft palate, and then given off by an outward action, is changed by these actions from a vowel into a consonant. When very slightly uttered, with little of the organic action, and therefore resuming much of the character of a vowel, it is No. 55." Hence, I transcribe No. 58 by (J), and No. 55 by ( ( J$)$.
59. " s and ss; also c or sc before e or i, as in sell, sit, mass ; cell, face, cit, scene, science," is (s).
60. "z, zz, ze, as in zeal, buzz, maze," is ( z ).
61. "sh as in mis $h$ '-un, so spelled to signify the pronunciation of mission," is (sh).
62. " zh as in rizzh'-un, so spelled to signify the pronunciation of vision," is ( zh ).
63. "ch, tch, as in chair, each, match," is (tsh), see No. 64.
64. " j ; and also g before c or i , as in $j \mathrm{og}$; $g \mathrm{em}$, age, $g \mathrm{in}$," is (dzh). Nos. 63 and 64 "are not simple consonants, the former being $t$ and $s h$, and the latter d and zh." ${ }^{\circ}$ Prince L. L. Bonaparte considers that Smart's observations in No. 147 tend to shew that, notwithstanding this statement, Smart really analysed (tshj, dzhj). But to me Smart's observations ouly relate to the use of ( $\operatorname{tsh}_{\lfloor\mathrm{J},}, \mathrm{dzh}_{[\mathrm{J})}$, as he says in Nos. 61, 62, 63, and 64, that these consonants are "unable to take the consonant $y$ [ No. 58] into fluent union, and therefore either absorb the $y$ entirely, or reduce it to the slighter element" No. 55, here transcribed ( J ). Of the possible reduction of (sh(J) into (shj), he seems to have had no clear conception. Thus, he takes no notice of (lj inj). Ilis coup d'ail, bagnio are (kuudəall; ben'Jo). But his labit of speech may have been different from his analysis. This is ofteu the case. Thus Mr. Murray and merself amalyse my own pronunciation of " long $\bar{a}$ ", differently ( $1109, d$ ).
65. "f, ff, fe, as in jog, cuff, life," is (f).
66. "r, ve, as in vain, love," is (v).
67. " $t h$, as in $t$ hin, pith," is (th).
68. "th, the, as in them, with, breathe," is ( dh ).
69. "l, ll, le, as in let, mill, sale," is (I). The Iast syllable of ablc, idle, he says, is "a syllable indeed without a vowel, except to the eye," adding in a note, "A-ble, e-vil, ma-son, broken, etc., although heard with only one vowel, are as manifestly two syllables to the ear (all our poetry proves it) as any dissyllable in the language."
70. " $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{mm}$, me, as in may, hammer, blame," is (m).
71. " $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{nn}, \mathrm{ne}$, as in no, banner, tune," is ( n ).
72. "ng, as in ring," is (q).
73. "r, rr, as audibly beginning a syllable or being one of a combination of consonants that begin a syllable, as in ray, erect, florid ( $=$ florrid), torrid, pray, spread. Under other circumstances, the letter is a sign of mere guttural vibration." This "is an utterance of voice acted upon by a trill or trolling of the tongue against the upper gum." Again, in No. 33, he speaks of $r$ in ray, etc., as "formed by a strong trill of the tongue against the upper gum." [This would be (. r ), but I shall transcribe (r), as I have transcribed ( $\mathbf{n}$ ), see No. 78. But that the trill is strong is 'strongly' opposed to Mr. M. Bell's untrilled ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ).] "The trill in which the utterance of this consonant mainly consists, is often faultily produced by the back of the tongue against the soft palate" [meaning the uvula, which is the real vibrator, against the back of the tongue], "so formed, it makes the noise called the burr in the throat, a characteristic of Northumbrian pronunciation, and not unfrequent in particular places and many families elsewhere." The burr is $(r)$, the dental trill is $(r)$.
74. " p , pp , pe, as in pop, supper, hope," is (p).
75. "b, bb, be, as in $b o b$, rubber, robe," is (b).
76. "k, ck, ke; also c final, and c
before a, o, or $u$, or a consonant, as in king, hack, bake; autic, cat, cot, cut, claim," is ( $\mathbf{k}$ ).
77. " g , before $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}$, or u , or a consonant, as in gap, got, gun, guess, plague, grim," is (g).
78. " t , tt , te, as in ten, matter, mate, is an utterance of breath confined behind the tongue by a close junction of the tip of the tongue and the upper gum, the breath therefore being quite inaudible, till the organs separate to explode, either the breath simply as in $\breve{a} t$, or the breath vocalised as in too." If the contact with the grm is to be taken literally, I must transcribe (. t ), and must then have ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}$ ). I am inclined to belicve, however, that in all cases Smart was contenting himself with old definitions, instead of making independent observations; and hence $\mathbb{I}$ shall use ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}$ ).
79. "d, dd, de, as in den, madder, madc," in consequence of what is said in No. 78, I transcribe (d). See No. 78.

As Smart makes no difference in meaning when a consonant is doubled, I shall not double consonants in transcribing, and in consequence I shall not divide syllabically, as this would be impossible on his plan without such reduplications. Smart distinguishes two accents, primary and secondary, which I transcribe as $(\cdot)$ and $(:)$, and place after the vowel or after the consonant as he has done. With regard to monosyllables, he says (art. 176) that they are all "exhibited as having accented vowel-sounds." But as he makes unemphatic $a=$ No. 24 or $\left(\partial^{\mathrm{a}}\right)$, $m e=$ Nos, 70 and 4, or (mi), your $=$ (эə`), am, was had, shall, and, $=\left(\partial^{\infty} \mathrm{m}\right.$,
 of $=(\partial \mathrm{V})$, from $=($ from $) ; m y, b y=(\mathrm{mi}$, bi), and thy "among people who familiarly use it'' $=(\mathrm{dhi})$, and the $=$ (dhi) before a vowel and (dhas) before a consonant, and you "in the accusative case and not emphatic" $=$ (Ji) or (sə), I shall so transcribe them in the connected passage, but I omit the hyphens.

Some of the words in the example are not in Smart's Dictionary, such as graphical, phonetic, linguistical, and inflexions and derivatives, such as its, printed, etc. His pronunciation of these has been inferred from graphic graphically, phonology minctic, linguist sophistical, and the simple words. Altogether I believe that the transcription fairly represents the original.

## Comparative Spectmen of Individual Sinthetic

A. J. Eliis.

See pp. 1091-1173.
Dhe-ri t'n en-pri ntyd re:prizentee shen b -dhe-so' $u \cdot \mathrm{nz}$ ev-læ•qw $y \mathrm{~d}$, zh sh, bi-mii•nz erkæ'ryktizs, whi $\cdot$, sh-er $i: n s c f i$ shent, both-in-ka' $i \cdot n d$ en-nə-mbe-r, en-wh $i \cdot \mathrm{t}$,sh mes-dhee'.fa bii:-kemba' $\cdot$.nd a-
 gre fikel si:mbelizee shen $\mathfrak{r}$ -dhe-fone tik e-hements with-
 egzx•knys 'n-kenvii•nijens, неz-bii $n$, frem-Aa•l ta' $i m$, fenee shenz ez-we•l-ez i:ndivi $\cdot d$ Júufelzs, liqgevistikel stiúu dents no่t ekse•ptyd, wə•n-g-dhe mos-ne seseri en-wə•n-r-dhe mos$\mathrm{d} i \cdot$ fik'lt ev-problemzs, en-ezs-kə•nsikwentli skee'sli e've bin-Hæ'prli solvd. Letdh $i \cdot$ s tii't, sh-es dhet-dh $i-$ رinve'nshen er-ro'itiq, dhegree.tyst mn-moost impustent inve'nshen whi't.sh dhe-Jhull men ma'ind ez-e ve meed, rn-whi ${ }^{\text {t. }}$ sh, æz-it-indii•d $\mathrm{A} \cdot$ lmost eksii $\cdot d z$ its-stre $\cdot q$ th, Hez-bin-o f. f'n en-
 te-dhe-gr ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{dz}$; la' $\cdot \mathrm{k}$ k-dhi
 si'mp'l-'n kə mpleks, $i \cdot z$-nətdhe wəo k -ev $i$ 'ndivi $:$ :duiufulzs, bat-bv-se'ntiúrizs, peræ'psตv thə' $u$ 'zenz-七v Jii'zs.

Prof. S. S. Haldemin. See pp. 1186-1 196.
Dho Lritn $y$ nd pLrintyd Lrepuizentee shyn $y$ rdho sáwndz yv læqgwidzh bás minz $y$ v kæ•rykt..z, whwitsh au insefi $\cdot$ shynt, both in kájnd $y \mathrm{n}$ nə $\cdot \mathrm{mb} . \ell, y \mathrm{nd}$ whwitsh məst dhe $\left\langle\right.$ fo. bi bi kombáynd $A^{A}$.I modyfúsd if wi wud giv a gLræ•fikl simbl jizeshyn $y$ v dha fonetik e-lymynts widh $0 \cdot n l i$ sam dig Lrii $y$ vo egzæktnes $y$ nd konvii•nsyns, تhæz bin, f.ıəm al tásm fa ${ }^{\wedge} \mathrm{x}$ ne $\cdot \operatorname{shynz}$ əz wel $y z$ indyridJuylz [indyvidzhylz] liqgwistikl stsu dnts not ekse'ptyd พวn [mon] $y \mathrm{r}$ dha most ne $\cdot \mathrm{s} y \mathrm{~s} y_{\mathrm{L}}{ }^{1 i}$ $y$ nd wan $y \mathrm{~V}$ dhy most difikylt $y \mathrm{v}$ pLroblymz, $y \mathrm{nd}$ нhæz konsikwynthi ske:xsli ev $\ell$ bin تhæpyli sa ${ }^{\wedge} 1 \mathrm{rd}$. Let dhis tiitsh as dhat dho invenshyn $y$ v Lrástiq, dhə gLretyst n most imps ${ }^{\text {A. atnt }}$ inve nshyn whwitsh dho Jhouu myn másnd nhæz ev. $\ell$ med, $y$ nd whwitsh, ra it indii•d salmost eksii•dz its streqth [strenth?] Hhæz bin $\Delta^{\Delta f n}[\mathrm{fof}]$ ynd nət əndzhə $\operatorname{stl} i$ æt_ri $i$ bsytyd to dho gas ${ }^{\text {d }} \mathrm{dz}$; lásk dhə o.ugynizm $y$ г a stet, æt wons si $i \cdot \mathrm{mpl} y \mathrm{n}$ kəmpleks, $i \mathrm{z}$ not dha wa.ks $y \mathrm{v}$ indyvi dsuylz
 $y \mathrm{v}$ tháwzndz $y \mathrm{v}$ sii.z.

Pronunclation of Exglisif in the Nineteentif Century.

## H. Sweet.

See p. 1196.
Dh'-ri 'tn-'n-pr $i \cdot n t e^{1} d-$

 -kæ•re ${ }^{1}$ ktəhz wi:tsh-'r$i: n s ' f i$ sh'nt $\mathrm{b}, \delta_{\mathrm{u}}$ :th-e'n-kev' $y$ 'nd-'n-na mmboh 'nd-w $i$ 'tsh-m'stdhee'əh:f'h $w$-be' ${ }^{1}$-k'mber' $y$ nd-'h $w$ -
 græ•fe ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}^{1} 1$-si:mb'le'yzéy $\mathrm{sh}^{\prime} \mathrm{n}-{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{r}$ -dh'-f.one'te ${ }^{1 k}$-El'm'nts w'dh-
 $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ gzæ.ktne's-'n-k'nviiu•ns'ns нh'z-biǐ:n-fr'm-sal-trey:m f'néy $\cdot$ sh'nz 'z-we:ll-'z$i: n n d e^{1} v i \cdot d z h, u^{\prime} l z$, liqqgwi $i$ 'ste ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} l$-stsuиw $\cdot$ d'ntsn, a:tt-e ${ }^{1} k s e^{-p t e}{ }^{1} d$ wa:nn-'v-dh'-m, $6 o_{u}: s t-n E \cdot s ' s r e{ }^{1}$ 'nd-wa:nn-' $r-d h '-\mathrm{m}_{1} \boldsymbol{o o}_{\mathrm{u}}:$ std $i \cdot$ fe ${ }^{1} k^{\prime}$ 'lt-' $r$-pr, obble ${ }^{1} m z$, 'nd-
 e•vah-bijn-mhæ• p'le'-s, $\cdot$ •llvd. Lett -dhi:s-tis'tsh-'s dh't-dh'-elnve'nsh'n-'v-re' $y$ 'tiq dh'gréy $\cdot{ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{st}-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{o}_{\mathrm{u}}$ :st$e^{1} m p s^{\prime} \partial h \cdot t n t-e^{1} n$ Ye'nsh'n wi:tsh-dh'-пhJuит*'m'n-mery'nd-'z-E.vah-méey•d 'nd-wi:tsh
 $e^{1} k s i i \neq \cdot d z-e^{1} t s-s t r e \cdot q t h$, \#h'z-bisn-1•fn, 'n$\mathrm{n}_{9}$ a:tt-ndzhe':stle ${ }^{1}$, 'tri $\cdot$ bsumte ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~d}-$ $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}-\mathrm{dh}$ '-g, $, \cdot \mathrm{ddz}, \mathrm{le}^{\prime} y: \mathrm{k}-\mathrm{dh} \mathrm{e}^{1}-$ A'əh g'ni:zm-'r-'h-stéy't, 't-wa'ns -si'mpl-'n-k, $\supset$-mple:ks, $e^{1} Z-n, จ: t t-$ dh' wəəh $k{ }^{\prime} \quad v-i: n n d e^{1} v i \cdot d z h, u^{\prime} 1 z$ b't-'v-se'ntsh're's, pre'ps-'v-thøoəo'0'zudz-'v-Jíə hz .

## B. H. Suart.

See pp. 1197-1205.
Dha ${ }^{a}$ rit'n ${ }^{\infty}$ nd print $\cdot$ ed rep:rizentée $\left[\right.$ i shən $\partial v ~ d h \partial^{\text {a }}$ sáaund $z$ әг læq.gwe ${ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{dzh}$, bi miinz әr kær $æ k$ ktə'z H[hwitsh aa' in:səfish'LJent, bóo ${ }^{\text {uth }}$ in kv'ind
 dhe' foo' bi kombo'ind. $A$ ' mad ifa'id if wi wud giv $\partial^{a}$
 dha ${ }^{\text {a }}$ fonet $i k$ el-iments widh óo Lunli som digrii• əv egzeekt'nes $\boldsymbol{o}^{\infty}$ nd kanvii•niens,
 née $L$ i ${ }^{1}$ shənz $\partial^{2 \pi} Z$ wel $\partial^{2 \pi} Z$ in: divid $\cdot$ Juว ${ }^{x \times 1} \mathrm{l}$, liqgwist $\cdot i k \partial^{x} l$ stsuu $\cdot d e n t s$ nat eksept $\cdot$ ed, wan
 $\partial^{\infty}$ nd wən əv dhə ${ }^{\text {a }}$ móo Lust difikəlt av prab lemz $\partial^{x}$ nd
 ev•ə’ bin Hyhæp•ili salvd. Let dhis tiitsh $\partial \mathrm{s}$ dho ${ }^{\text {T }} \mathrm{d}$ dh ${ }^{a}$
 grée Lit.est $^{2}{ }^{\mathfrak{x}} \mathrm{nd}$ móo Lust impas ${ }^{2}$ 'tarent inven'shon \#Thwitsh dhi \#ybuur mo ${ }^{\infty} \mathrm{n}$ mə'ind
 $\partial^{2 \pi z}$ it indiid. AAl mo ${ }^{\circ}$ st eksiid z its streqth $H_{[ } \partial^{\infty} Z$ bin $A f \cdot n \partial^{\infty} n d$ nat andzhost li $x^{9}$ trib•suted tu dho gadz, lo'ik dhi $A A^{\prime} \cdot g \partial^{x} n i z m$ əv $\partial^{a}$ stée it $^{\infty} \partial^{\infty} t$ wəns sim'pl $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\text {and }}$ kam’pleks, iz nat

 วv tháau'zə ${ }^{\circledast}$ ndz əv Jii $\cdot \partial^{\prime} z$.

## Orservations on Unstudied Pronunclations.

All the above specimens of pronunciation labour under the obvious disadvantage of being the result of deliberate thought. Mr. Bell's and Mr. Smart's, like those of all pronouncing dictionary writers and elocutionists, give rather what they think ought to be than what they have observed as most common. They take to heart a maxim which Dr. Gill borrowed from Quintilian and stated thus: "Quemadmodum in moribus bonorum consensus, sic in sermone consuetudo doctorum primaria lex est. Scriptura igitur," by writing, he, as a phonetic writer, implied pronunciation, "omnis accommodanda erit, non ad illum sonum quem bubulci, quem mulerculae et portiores [sic, portitores?]; sed quem docti, aut cultè eruditi viri exprimnnt inter loquendum et legendum." But my object in this book is to know what men did and do habitually say, or think they say, and not merely what they think they ought to say. I have therefore endeavoured to catch some words which were not giren as specimens of pronunciation, but, being uttered on public occasions, were, I thought, fairly appropriable. Of course this attempted exhibition of some pronunciations labours under another immense disadrantage. When Prof. Haldeman, Mr. Sweet, and myself wrote down each his own pronunciation, we were each able to repeat the sound, feel the motion of the organs, revise and re-revise our conceptions as to what it really was, and thus give the result of careful deliberation. But when I attempt to write down a passing word,-and the very merit of my observation consists in the absolute ignorance of the speaker that his sounds and not his sense are being noted,-there is no possibility to recall the word, and unless it happens to recur soon, I am unable to correct my first impressions. I have indeed often found that after hearing the word several times, I have been unable to analyse it satisfactorily. Still, knowing no better method of observing, I give a few results to shew what it leads to. I name the speakers when they are well-known public men, whose speech-sounds may probably be taken as a norm, as much as their thoughts. They will understand, that they are named, not for the purpose of "shewing up" peculiarities, but of enforcing the fact that men of undoubted education and intelligence, differ in pronunciation from one another, from pronouncing dictionaries, and from my own habits, so that the term "educated pronunciation" must be taken to have a very "broad" signification. It must be understood that all these pronunciations were noted on the spot, as soon as possible after each word was nttered, and that I have in no case allowed subsequent impressions to affect my original note, which I have regarded as a conscientious, though of course possibly erroneous, observation. When $(e, ~ a)$ are written, I can never feel sure that ( $\mathbf{e}, \pi$ ) were not actually used. When, however, ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{a}$ ) are written, they were certainly observed. No attention having been paid at the time of noting to the difference between ( $\pi$, mh), the use of $\pi$ cannot be guaranteed, and ( $\mathrm{H} \mathrm{h}_{1}$ ) is often more probable. In each case I have thought it best to add my own pronunciation, as well as I can figure it, for the
purpose of comparison. This is always placed last, and is preceded by a dash. Thus, in the first word citel, " accomplished ækə mplisht -rkomplisht," the italics indicate ordinary spelling, the first palaeotype the pronunciation observed, the second palaeotype, following the (-), the pronunciation which I believe I am in the habit of using in connected speech. If nothing follows the dash, my pronunciation agrees with that observed, but both disagree from several (and possibly, but not necessarily, all) pronouncing dictionaries. When no dash is added, my pronunciation differed too slightly to be noted. In no case, however, must these notes of my own pronunciation be taken as a confirmation or correction of the former. They are added merely to mark differences of habit. Such men as I have cited by name have certainly a full right to say that their pronunciation is a received English pronunciation-at least as much so, I think more than as much so, as any professed elocutionist. It may be observed that my list is not extensive enough, and that especially I have not given examples from the pronunciation of professed men of letters, from the bar, the stage, or the pulpit. This is true. All these classes labour under the disadvantage of making speech a profession. I have an idea that professed men of letters are the worst sources for noting peculiarities of pronunciation; they think so much about speech, that they nurse all manner of fancies, and their speech is apt to reflect individual theories. However, Prof. Bain may be taken as one of the best examples. The bar has rather hereditary pronunciations, where they are not individual and local. The stage for the higher class of dramas is archaic and artificial; for the middle and lower it is merely imitative, and hence exposes an observer to all the chances of error in taking information second hand. The pulpit is full of local pronunciations, but Professor Jowett, distinguished and admired as a preacher as well as a scholar, may be considered a sufficient representative of this class. Men of science I have especially represented. They are forming a large and influential class at the present day. The geueral Londoners in public neeting assembled seemed to me a good source for general varieties. Parliament is far too local ; and so are country gentlemen, from whom its ranks are mainly recruited. Of course it must be understood that the peculiarities which I have chosen to note do not characterise the general run of the pronunciation of the speakers observel. It must not be assumed that every word is peculiar, or that the greater number of words present divergent characters. Thus the words from Prof. Bain and Prof. Jowett are all that it occurred to me to note in two courses of lectures-a very small number when thus considered. The general speech of educated London differs only in certain minute points, and in a few classes of words, so far as I have hitherto observed, from that which I have given as my own. Even in the cases cited, where I have put my own for contrast, the differences are seldom such as would strike an observer not specially on the look-out for individualities of pronunciation.

## Phof. Alexander Bans.

$W$ ords observed in listening to a course of lectures on "Common Errors on the Mind," delivered by Prof. Bain at the Royal Institution in May, 1868. Prof. Bain had evidently considered well both his pronunciation and delivery, so that all his deriations from custom must be regarded as the result of deliberate choice, although possibly modified by local habits, as in (boodh) for (booth). And as Prof. Bain has bestowed considerable attention on phonetic writiug, no allowance need be made for possible Scotticisms. I do not feel at all certain that ( $\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{i}, \partial^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ ) are correctly analysed.
 udvantages ædvaa•ntydzhyz-ædvaa'ntedzhyz
against you age nstjuu—ege•nst‘ Ju
aghast ægaa'st-rgaa'st
alternation AAltexuee shen - æ:Itenee•-
shen
a solid ah solid-e solid
a strong e stroq-
avaly ewee--ewee
beaut ideal boo ideræ'l—boo a'idii' $\mathfrak{e l}$ both boodh—booth
brauch brahntsh-brantsh braantsh
cessation siisce shen-sesee shen
eircumstances s. kr . stensyz
circumlocution sakəmlokuu'shen-səə:-
kemlokiún'shen
elass klaas-
classes klee'siz-klaa'syz
compounds kə mpaundz-ko mpa'undz
consummated konsə•meted - ko nsemee:tyd
contrast ko ntraast-
crafty kraah•fti-kraa•ft $i$
dauce dæns-daans
economised iikə noməizd-ikə'nemə'izd educability ediukəbi:liti-
effect ife kt -efe kt
engine e'ndzhain-ə'ndzhin
epoch ii•pok-e pok
example egzaan•pl—
explanation eksple nee $\cdot$ shen-c:ksplenee sheǹ
cxtolled ekstoo ld -eksto $\cdot \mathrm{ld}$
eye áil-a' $^{2}$
faculties feekoltez-ferkeltyz
fatigue fahtii.g-fetii•g
force foors fuers-foo's
forth foorth-foo'th
fraternity freetex niti-fretoa niti
fraternize frat'ernai'z-fræ'tena' $i: z$
functionary fo qkshoueri-
genus dzhen•วs-dzhii•nos
good guud-gud
handic`aft næ•ndikreft-ræ•ndikra:ft mæ'ndikraa:ft
hardly наа rdl - наа $\cdot \mathrm{dli}$
heroine нiirojoin- нe•rofin
heterogencous wetəərodzhii•niəs-не:te-
ro) dzhe $n i \geqslant$ əs
hold Hoold ?-Hoold
human shuu men-
ignorance $i$ :gnərbns-
implantcd implæ'ntyd-implantyd implaa•ntyd
important impoor-tent-impaA'tent
inexorable ine gzerabl—ine $\cdot \mathrm{kserubl}$
initiative ini shetiv - in $i \cdot \operatorname{sh} L$ ictiv
intrinsically intri $n z i k e l i-$ intri.nsi-
kvli
irrespcctive $i$ rəspe-ktiv $-i$ :respe-ktiv
isolation əisolee shen-
knowledge nollydzh-
language læ•qwydzh-
last laast-
learners ler•nız-laz•nezs
lesson les'en-le'sen
maturity mætjuusriti-metiúu'riti
mass maas -
master maa'st.-maa'ste
miracle me $\cdot \mathbf{r e k l}-\mathrm{mi} \cdot \mathrm{rekl}$
modern thought modren that-mo•den thast
musician miuz $i \cdot \operatorname{sh} \neq n-m i u ́ z i \cdot$ shen
mutual miu'tjuel-miúu'tiújel miáu• tiu'l miúu tshel
narrow naa'ro-næ ro
natural nætjurel-næ’tiúrel næ’tshrel
obedience obii•dJins-obii•di)yns
path paath-
pcouliar pikiu•lijı-pikiúu•lije
person pæ'sn-рәә'sn
plastic plestik-
plasticity plaasti-siti-plæsti siti
practice pre'ktiz-præ'ktis
prejudice pre $\cdot \mathrm{dzhnd}$ ais-pre $\cdot \mathrm{dzh} u \mathrm{~d}$ is
pressure pres iur-pre'she
processes pros'esiz—proo'sysyz
purport par. po'rt-pəə•pet
relativity releti•viti-re:leti $\cdot$ viti
says seez-sez
sensibilities se nsobillitiz-se:nsibi-litiz
scntient se'nshent-se $\cdot n s h_{L}$ ) $y$ nt
soar SAAI-Soo'
speciality speshiarliti-
spirits spi $\cdot$ rets-spirrits
spurving spariq-spooriq
stoical sto -ikgl -stoo $\cdot \boldsymbol{i k e l}$
student stshuu dent-stiúu dynt
suited sun'ted-siún•tyd
system $\mathrm{s} i \cdot$ stom-si $i$-stym
lask taask-task taask
testimony te stimoni-te stimeni
thorough thor"o-tharo there
thoroughly thar'əli thor•oli-thoroli tha $\cdot \mathrm{rll} i$
transition trænzish'en, trænsizh'entrænsi'zheu
tutors tjun•taz-tinu'tezs

variety verai iti-
volcanoes volkee'nooz-rolkaa'nooz
want want-wont
was wəs-wวz wวz
whole ноо1- $\mathbf{~} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} w 1$

## Prof. Jowett,

the Master of Baliol College, Oxford, in February, 1871, gave three lectures on Socrates at the Royal Institution. The following are a few of his pronunciations there noted.
aspirant æ'sperent-æspə' $i$ 'rent
attaching himself to him ætæ•tshin-imself-tuu: im
bone boo'wn-boon?
but that the famous $\mathrm{b}^{\prime} \partial \mathrm{t}-\mathrm{dh}$ 'ət- $\mathrm{dh}_{\mathrm{L}} i$ fee mas-ba't-dhet-dhe fee mas
ccrtain sə rtn -səə•tyn
character kah•rekts-kærekte
Chatham tshæ'tem-
Cicero sisero-
describing him diskrái biq-im-dis$\mathrm{k} \boldsymbol{}^{\circ} \dot{i} \mathrm{~b} \dot{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{q}-\mathrm{Him}$
difficulty $\mathrm{d} i$ fukilt $i-\mathrm{d} i \cdot f i \mathrm{kvlt} i$
discontented di r skente:ntyd-
discovcry di $\cdot$ skə $\cdot \mathrm{veri}$ -
discrepancy di skripensi-diskre pensi
due djiúu-diúu
tarlicst әə•lijest—əə•lijyst
ears Jii.jez-ii'z
education e•dzhiúkee:shen - e:diáke $e{ }^{\circ}-$ shen
evil $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{V} y \mathrm{l}-\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{vl}$
example egzaa $\cdot \mathrm{mpl}$ -
exhausted egzas'styd-
forcign form-forry
gather up gaa-dhur-op-gædher-op
haughtily HAA'teli-наa'tili
he has had нii•-вz-æd-нii•-еz-нæd
height нйháitth—нә it

human Jhiúu'men -
humourist shiuu'merist-
image $i \cdot$ midzh- $i \cdot$ medzh
1sthmian $i$ smijen-isthmijen
knowledge noo ledzh—nolydzh
lastly laa•sli-laa'stli
lecture le $\mathrm{ktsh}-\mathrm{le} \cdot \mathrm{kti}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$
manhood mæ•nud-mæ'nни:d
mask maask-
memorabilia me:morebilije-me:merebi $\cdot 1$ je
minutiae máiniaúshi $i \mathrm{ii}-\mathrm{miniúu} \cdot \mathrm{sh} i j \mathrm{i}$
moulds moolz-moo'wldz
must have mə-st-zr-
natural ne'tsherel-næ'tsherel ne'tiu' rel
nature nee'tshe—nee tshe nce ${ }^{\prime}$ tiu'
opinion epi nsen-opínsen
oracle $\begin{gathered}\mathrm{rek} \\ \text { - }\end{gathered}$
ordinarily $\mathrm{AA} \cdot d i n ə r i l i-\mathrm{AA} \cdot d$ inerili
origin oredzhin-o ridzhin
ornaments AA $\cdot \mathrm{nem} \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{n}}$ ts-
parallel pæ•relel-pærrelel
passed paast-
persons pərsnz—pəəsnzs
politician pa:leti shen-po:litishen
politics poletiks-
Potidaea potedii'-po'tidii•e
process prooses-
socicty stsáirut $i$ - sose $\mathfrak{i}$ it $i$
Socrates s 0 kretiiz-
soon sun-suun
time táim-ta'im
unable ə'nec: bl -rnee $\cdot \mathrm{bl}$
ventured ve-ntshed--ve'ntiúd ve'ntshed virtue vəətshu-vəətiú vəətsh $u$
whole нool- $\mathbf{H}$ oo' $w 1$
Xenophon ze'nefen-


Sir G. B. Airy,

Astronomer Royal and President of the
Royal Society, made use of the following pronunciations while speaking at the Royal Society, 30 Nov. 1872.
components kompoo'nents - kəmpo $0^{\circ}$ nynts
geodesists gil:odii•sists-dzhijodisists
gcodesy gii:odii'si-dzhipodisi
Greenwich grii-nwitsh—grinidzh

New Zealand niúu zelend - náun zii•lend
Nova Zembla noo'vee ze'mblee-noo've ze mble
paldeontology pee:lijpontr•lojdzhipæliontole de dzh $i$
 sk $\supset \cdot \mathrm{p} i \mathrm{k}$ [some say (stil ${ }^{7} \cdot$ rioskoo $\cdot \mathrm{pik}$ )]

Dr. Ноокеr,

when delivering his opening address as President of the British Association at the Norwich Meeting on the 19 Aug. 1868. I believe Dr. Hooker is East Anglian by birth.
accumulated aky'mylce:ted--rkiúu•miúlee:tyd. [N.B. The first, accented, (y) was rather indistinct and very short.]
alone alo $0^{\circ} \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{cl}$ oo' $w^{\circ} \mathrm{n}$
are ee"-aa
bones bonz-boo'wnz
cantonment kantuu $n m e n t-k æ \cdot n t e n-$ $\mathrm{m} y \mathrm{nt}$
either ce dhe [not (ee)]-ii•dhe o $i \cdot$ dhe
few fyy [perhaps (fey), the word was difficult to catch, and I noticed it only once]-fiúu.
finite finnt [in the phrase (dhi $i$-nfinit en dhe firnit), this pronunciation was altogether new to me, though I have often heard ( $i$ nfo'ina $i$ ) as opposed to]-(fa' $i \cdot n{ }^{\prime}$ 'it)
Lawrence las•ryns [not (la) or (lo)](Lory/ns)
only $o \cdot n l i$ [not at all uncommon]oo'w'nli
neither nec $\cdot$ dhe -nii•dhe na'i $\cdot$ dhe
plants plahnts-plaants
progress progres-proo gres [there is great diversity in the words product progress, many give (pro) and otbers (proo) to both; I say (pro $\cdot$ dakt proo-gres), but Col. Strange at the same meeting said (proo dəkt, pro*gres).]
quote kot [quite short (o)]- $\mathbf{k}$ woot

stone ston-stoo'wn
undertaken ə:ndetee kən [distinct (kən)] —ә:ndetee $\mathrm{k}^{\prime \prime n}$
wholly $\mathrm{H} \cdot \cdot 1 i-\mathrm{HoO} \cdot \mathrm{ll} i$

## Men of Science.

Only a very few cases are here given, chiefly remarked at meetings of the British Association. Men of Science have usually many very curious local pronunciations, and others arising from using words for themselves from books long before they have heard others use them. There seems to be no tradition or norm for scientific terms, and if the pronunciation is such as to bring the printed form of the word to mind, men of science care very little for the pronunciation of scientific terms. Many of the following are certainly dialcetal, but all thic speakers were educated, often very highly educated men. absorbed æbsAa'pt-æbsaA.bd albumen $x \cdot l b s u m e n-x \cdot l b i u ́ u \cdot m e n$ anesthetics ænesthii $\cdot$ tiks-ænesthe tiks antidotal æ ntidoo:tel-ænti -dotel appearance apii•, ryns-rpii' rens aqueous $\mathfrak{x} \cdot \mathrm{k} w i$ วs-ee $\mathrm{k} w$ iวs asteroids æstic'rojidz [Prof. Stokes]æ'sterv'idz
before bifoo r -bifoo'.
elass klos-klaas
commander bomæ•nds-kemaa•nde comparable kompee'rebl-ko mperebl compare kompee. $\mathrm{r}^{\prime \prime}$-krmpee'.
constitution konstitju shen - ko:nstitiúu'shen
contrive kəntrải•v—kentro' $i \cdot v$
doubt dout-da'ut
$d r y \mathrm{dra}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{dra}^{\prime} i$
eleetrolysis ile•ktrola'i'sis - ii:lek tro*lisis
endowment end $00 \cdot \mathrm{~m} y \mathrm{nt}$ [Prof. Huxley] - onda' $u$ mynt
equidistant $\mathrm{e} \cdot \mathrm{k} w i \mathrm{~d} i$ :stent-ii:kwidi :stent
estuaries ii•strujeriz-e'stíujeriz
experiments elspaəriments-eksperimynts
explieable ekspl $i$ kebl-e ksplikebl
find fre'ind-fa'ind
gaseous gaa'zios [Prof. Stokes], gee sizs
[the late Mr. Babbage]-gee zizas
haste нæst-Heest
introducing introdjux'sjiq-introdiúu*siq
larger læ rdzher-laa•dzhe
Lausame losaa'n-losan [equal stress]
loose láus-loos
lungs laqgz-laqz
moon mun [Sir W. Thomson], mu'n [the late Prof. Rankine]-muun
paragraphs paa ragrefs [the late Prof.
Rankine]-pæ'regraafs
Paris paaris-pæris
past pæst-paast
$p h i=\phi, \mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ ' $i-\mathrm{fo}$ ' $i$
pulsates $\mathrm{p} u \cdot$ Isets $-\mathrm{p} \cdot \mathrm{l}$ seets
pulsative $\mathrm{p} u$ - Isetiv-po- lset v
pulse puls-pals
put v. pot-put
round ráhund-ra'und
size sáiz-sa'iz
staff stæf-staaf
strata stræe'ta-stree'te
substantial sobstaa'nshel-sobstx'nshel systematising si:ste)matái $\quad$ ziq-si-strmeta'i:ziq
transactions trænsæ-ksenz-traansæ•kshenz
wind n. wa'ind-wind

## General Public.

The following were noted at public meetings. The speakers are separated, but the names not being generally well known, are withheld:
A Peer.
rise ráhiz-ra'iz
adoption edo pshen-
observing obzaə•viq-
last laast -
large laa_rdzh(\%)-laadzh
framers free mez [not free]-frec.mez
paragraph pervgraaf-
brighter bráhi'te-bràite
darkness daa• $\mathrm{rknis}(?)$-daa $\mathrm{kn} y \mathrm{~s}$
reeord re-kadd [in law courts (rekaA•d)] -re•kad
trained .t.reend(?)-treend
conversant ko nvesent [(konvəə'sent) is common]-
director de $\dot{i} \mathrm{re} \cdot \mathrm{kte}$ - dire kte [and (da'i-) occasionally, when used emphatically]
agree ægrii• [with distiuct (æ)]-vgrii-
only oo nli $\left[\right.$ not $\left(00^{\circ} w-\right)$, and $(0 \cdot n l i)$ is common]-oo' $w \cdot \mathrm{nl} i$
bazaar bezaa'-bezaa.
forth foo'th [the ('h) was uncertain]-
two or three years tu-A-thri-Jii'z A Noble Mr.P.
samples sæ'mplz [generally, once at least (saa $\cdot \mathrm{mplz}$ )] - saa $\cdot \mathrm{mplz}$
decilde disá $\begin{aligned} & \text { d } \\ & \text { [long } i \text { always (ái) or }\end{aligned}$ (ii)]-disa' $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'd } \\ & \text { [long } i \\ & \text { never (á } i), ~\end{aligned}$ which I reserve for aye, and thus distinguish eye, aye as (a' ${ }^{\prime}$, ái $\left.)^{\prime}\right]$
parcols $\mathrm{p} a \cdot \mathrm{slz}$ - paa'selz
I dare say á $i$ dəa see $\left[\operatorname{not}\left(s e e^{\prime} j\right)\right]-\partial^{\prime} i$ dəa see’j
time thlladien [brought out very emphatically, not the ordinary pronun-ciation]-ta'im
idea áidii'er [distinct final trill]ə'idii•)

A Gencral Officer.
resolution re:zoluu'shen - re:zel_iáushen
century se•mtshrri-se ntiúri
further fas dbe-faə dhe
I have had it a't'ev нæ•dit-
serious sii' 'rijos-sie'rijos
always AA $\cdot$ lwez [short (e)]-AA $\cdot$ lweez
cholera ko-lerg-
pass paas [distinetly long]
my lord miland• [(r) distunctly absent]
Clergyman (Irish ?).
chairman tshe'men-tshee'men
pray pree [distinctly (ee)]-pree’j
say see-see'j
name neem-neem *
gracious gree shas-gree'shas
staff stæf [very thin(æ), almost (E)]staaf
class klæs-klas klaas
thanks threqks-
command $\mathrm{k} 3 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{maa} \cdot \mathrm{nd}-\mathrm{krmaa} \cdot \mathrm{nd}$
ask aahsk [compare class and command] -aask
kind kjáhind-ka'ind
guidance gjáh $i \cdot$ dens-ga' $i \cdot d$ nens
our óur [I think trilled ( r$)]-\mathrm{a}^{\prime} u^{\prime}$
course kóoes [the (s) inclined to (sh)]koo's
intercourse $i \cdot n t e k a A s$ [possibly (-koos)] -i'ntekoo's

## Physicians, various.

rotation rotee shen [not (tee'j)]-
anxicty æq)sa'i.iti [not (æqks-), nor (æqz-)]-æqza' $\cdot i \cdot t i$
future fiúu'tshe-fiau'tiz'
vate voot [not voo' $u$ t] -
hospital $o$ spitel [this one speaker in. variably omitted the aspirate in this word only, even to the extent of saying (e no*spitel) for an hospital; an archaism]-нә spitel
kindness krá $i$ ndn $n_{L}$ es [probably due to emphasis]-ko' $i \cdot \mathrm{ndnys}$
write rhrá $i \mathrm{t}$ [or nearly so]-rə'it
across akroos- ekros ekroos
bchalf bєнæ•f—bінаа•f
appreciate eprii 'sh $i$ jeet-wprii shijeet
really rii' $1 i$ [rhyming to clearly ( $\left.k i i i^{\prime} \cdot l i\right\rangle$, some say (rii$\cdot \mathrm{l} i$ ), and (rii $1 l^{i}$ ) is heard, but conveys the notion of reely, i.e. iuclined to reel]strenathened stre'qth'nd [not (stre'nth'nd), as Prof. Tyndall and very many speakers say] -
known nóoun [the ( $u$ ) distinct]-noo'wn

## Professional and Commercial Men.

support supporting sepas't sepoo'tiq - sepoo't sepoo' ${ }^{\text {tiq }}$
empowered етрнйáu'd [strong ( Hlh ) due to emphasis, the same speaker said ( $\mathbf{p} \boldsymbol{\gamma}{ }^{\prime}$ hó $u$ ')]-empa'u' ${ }^{\prime}$ d
literature $1 \hat{i}$ 'terejtshe-li $i$ 'teretiư'
elearance k 'hl $i i^{\prime}$ 'rens $-\mathrm{kl} i 2 i^{\prime}$ 'rens
engage engee dzh [not (gee'j)]-
closcly klo -sl $i[$ short (o) $]$ - kloo -sl $i$
surprised sephra'i $\quad$ zd-sepra' $i \cdot \mathrm{zd}$
policy phlar lesi-polisi
corrclation khoorrilee shen-korijlee-shen-
congratulation kongre•tsh $L$ iúlee'shen

- kengræ•tiulee shen
only $o \cdot n \mathrm{nl} i[$ short $(o)]-0 o^{\prime} w \cdot n l i$
burden baə dn-
progress progres-proo.gr
halfpenny нee pni $[$ not (ee'j) $]$-нес'pen $i$
importance impóortens-impaa'tens
management mæ nidzhm int $^{\text {n }}$ - mæ.nedzhmynt
absolutcly $\mathfrak{x}$ bssliútli-
four foo' -
fivepence fa' $i \cdot v \mathrm{vens}-\mathrm{f} i$ pens
year sii ${ }^{*}$ -
pounds pa'unds-
office oah'fis (?)—ofis [(Aa•fis) is not uncommon]
hundred нhernded-нә•ndryd
naturally nætshrreli-næ’tiúreli
homæonpath ноо*mijopæt [(-pæt) dis-tinct]-
financially fy'inæ nsheli-finæ nshel $i$ [the (for $i$ ) arose perhaps from emphasis, but I have heard (fo'inc'ns)] adherents ædı 10 ' $\mathrm{r} y$ nts-
premature pre-metiüu'-prii:metiun'.
expenditure ekspe $\cdot n d i$ tshe - ekspe•nditiu'.
additional wed $\imath$ shenel-
sought for sad tfa -
regarding rigaa diq [not (gjaa) which is common]-
fiund fand-fond
humanity Hiumæ•niti-shumerniti
cards kaadz [tendency to ( k j$)]$ -
board boo'd [no tendency to (boo')]-
advantage ædvæ'ntedzh—edvaa'ntedzh [(ed-) :]
make meck ${ }^{\text {cho }}$ no tendency to (ee’j)] abstain æbstee n [no (ee'j)]-
homes нoomz [no (oo'w)]-
puncture pa'qktiu' [clear (t)]-pe'qktiu'
appreciation $æ p r i i: s i j e e \cdot s h$ nn - rpriisijee 'shen
strongly, s,tro $\mathrm{t} \cdot \mathrm{q}$ li [some speakers seem to have a great difficulty with (str-) initial, and hence are led to dentalise the combination; it is remarkable that (,$t_{r} r$ ) frequently occurs in dialects, although (, t ) and ( r ) are no longer recognized English sounds]-stro ${ }^{\text {q }}$ l $i$
returns rita rnz [merely the effect of ${ }^{4}$ emphasis, the speaker has no dialectal peculiarities]-ritəə nz
there should be daə:shedbii-
remarks rmah ks [I could detect no vowel after ( r )]-rimaa ks
parcels pah'rselz [trilled (r)]-paa'sylz
industry $i$.nda:stri-i'ndestr $i$
plants plahnts-plaants
world wohrld [certainly provincial]wәald
immediately imii $\cdot d z h y t l i$ [very common]
-imii dietli
samples sahmplz-sæ'mplz
circumstances sə $\cdot \mathrm{kem}$ jstah:nsez - вәә-
kemstensyz
importance impas ${ }^{\prime}$ tns-impas'tens
Foung Educated London.
The following were furnished me by Mr. Sweet as "the transcript of rather a broad London pronunciation of a girl of about twenty, which has some interesting features." He particularly calls " attention to the substitutes for (ee, oo), which were evidently transitional stages to (ahi, ah $u$ ), with which indeed they may be easily confounded on a superficial examination." Mr. Sweet's own pronunciation is added after (...) when it differs, and mine after $(-)$ as before. Except in my own case the (н) represents (Hh) most probably. See Mr. Sweet's own pronunciation, p. 1207.
one wəəon ... wann-wən
ask aask ... -
err әәһ ... -әә
eye aа' $i$... вr'y—o' $i$
me mïJ ... -mii
hid нiid, нidd ... -Hid
may mee' $i$... méy-meéj
cgg EEg Egg ... Egg-eg
air EE'วh ... -ee' ee'r
add ææd ædd-æd
how нжæ'о ... нæぁ'о-нә'и
two tuuw ... -tuu
pall paul pull ... pull-pal
owe $\omega^{\prime} \circ$... $00^{\prime} 0_{u}-00^{\prime} w$
awe AA ... -
or an'əh ... -an a or
odd ood od ... 一od
joy dzhoo'i ... dzhoo'y-d,zho'i


## Whence do Differences of Proncnciation Arise?

These examples are amply sufficient to shew that considerable diversities of pronunciation exist among educated speakers of all classes, even when speaking with the greater care usually taken in public delivery. That great differences of opinion exist among orthoepists is well shewn in Worcester's and especially Soule and Wheeler's pronouncing dictionaries, ${ }^{1}$ which, although not deseending into the

1 "A Manual of English Pronunciation and Spelling ; containing a full alphabetical vocabulary of the language, with a proliminary exposition of English orthoëpy and orthography; and designed as a work of reference for general use, and as a text-book in schools, by Richard Soule, jr., A.M., and William A. Wheeler, A.M." Boston,
U.S., 1861 ; London, Sampson Low, pp. xlii. 467. An extremely condensed and useful little book, not lumbered with meanings, and giving the opinions of Walker, Smart, Webster, Worcester, Goodwin, when they differ. Hence this vocabulary may be used as a compendium of these five writers' opinions.
minutiae attempted in the preceding lists, save me from loading my pages with a complete vocabulary of xixth century varieties of pronunciation.

Now whence do these differences arise?
The most obrious source of difference is that in fact there is no such thing as educated English promunciation. There are promunciations of English people more or less educated in a multitude of other things, but not in pronunciation. Children are never trained in the proper exercise of their vocal organs, or have their ears sharpened to appreciate differences. It would not be at all difficult to train the young organs, if only the teachers knew anything about it. We derote jears of upper school life to the study of classical languages, and enter deeply into their etymology, but we do not give the least practical instruction in the substantial form of language-speech-sounds, or their relations to one another, on which depend the principal changes which claim our attention. ${ }^{1}$ The consequence is that prounciations grow up now much in the same way as they did six humdred years ago. There is only one important difference -facility of communication. It required the War of the Roses to make an English of England, and the War of the Commonwealth to temper that down into the mother of modern speech. But now people are being thrown together with the greatest ease and rapidity from all parts of the country. Still, it is the opening of life which principally determines pronunciatiou. Childreu hear few speakers, chiefly those of their own age and standing. They regard not the roices of adults beyond those of a few familiar friends. Their vocabulary is limited, extremely limited, and when they grow up they learn more words by ceje than by ear ; hence they acquire habits of families, schools, coteries, professions, businesses, localities. Their organs become fixed ; they notice from others only what they themselres say. It is not polite to correct even a friend's prommciation; a stranger resents the impertinence. But still "young men from the country," or with narrow habits of speech, often get langhed out of their peculiarities. More, still, of a lower class of life ape those of the upper when they get mixed up among them, and strive hard to change a pronunciation which might betray their origin. But all this has a small influence. In the main the most educated pronunciation in English is local, with its corners more

[^9]never written. The collections of letters must suggest the sounds or nothing at all. A glossary of eollections of letters to whieh the right somnd eannot be even approximatively given, is really no glossary at all. We might just as well-perhaps better-give a meaning to a current number, for that could be pronounced (in his own manner) by every one. Yet this, I am sorry to think, is the state of most of our provincial glossaries at the present day-and I am afraid for most I ought to have said all.
rubbed off than it was fifty or a hundred years ago, but still essentially local, using that word as applicable to all limited environment. The language, however, contains thousands of words which are not used in ordinary conversation, and concerning which extraordinary variety prevails, as we have seen. The pronouncing prophets themselves, the Buchanans, Sheridans, Walkers, and their followers, have no principle to go on. They have had wider observation, but most of them make up their minds à priori, upon limited inductions, and men of literature disown their authority. Is it possible to arrive at any principles amid this chaos?

Our language consists essentially of two elements, which, for brecity, we may call German (Anglo-Saxon with Scandinavian), and French, (Norman with French, Latin and Greek). Now the German element really presents little or no difficulty. Our German words are familiar, and their dialectal forms are generally widely different from the received pronunciation of educated people in London, at court, in the pulpit, at the bar, on the stage, at the universities-and, in a minor degree, in parliament, and in the lecture-room, on the hustings, and in public meetings. The difficulty for most people lies with the French element, which is preponderating in the vocabulary, but is comparatively rare in speech, and which our wonderful orthography is totally incapable of investing with a vocal garb. Those who know Latin and Greek are therefore apt to imagine that they should shew the Latin and Greek origins by pronouncing the words much as they would if they were written with Latin and Greek letters. Hence such curiosities as (doktra' $i$ nel, inima' $i$ krl), -I have not heard (ss $i \cdot{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime} i 1$ ), although surely cievilis has as much a right to its (a'iz) as doctrina and inimious. It was in the same spirit that Prof. Stokes spoke of
 which should have led him to (aste 'rofa'idz), and I recollect that the late Prof. Traill of Edinburgh always insisted on the termination (-o fa'id) in similar words,) and Sir G. B. Airy used (gii:odii•si) from $\gamma \hat{\eta}$, (although the Greek is $\gamma \epsilon \omega \delta a \iota \sigma^{\prime} a$ ), and (miri $\cdot d i j o \circ^{\circ} \mathfrak{n} \cdot$ ) from meridiōnälis. But this is, I conceive, a mere mistake. Our language was formed at a time when the pronunciation of Greek and Latin even in Eugland was totally different from that now in use. Almost all our old words which can be traced to Latin and Greek came to us in a French form, and received their pronunciation and accent from our mode of dealing with French words. It would seem therefore most reasonable to suppose any Greek word to be first Latinised, then taken as French, and finally put into English. This will not exactly answer for those more recent words which have been taken from Latin and Greek by persons who did not know French, and which have hence preserved the Latin forms more closely, but even then it gives a principle. Thus, remembering o'rator, se'nator, the Scotch are more consistent than the English in saying curator; and remembering geo metry, geo graphy, it is more consistent to say geo desy; and similarly de monstrate is more in accordance with our plan of accenting French words than
demo•nstrate. This principle will make us independent of Latin and Greek quantity, which had ceased to be felt in Italy and Greece long before words were introduced into English. We must say (æ•mikrbl), not (rma' $i$ krbl), or (rma'i $\cdot \mathrm{kee}: \mathrm{bl}$ ), which would be real foreignisms; we must say (vi'ktgri), not (viktoo'ri), Latin victōria, although we say (viktoo'rijos), for which (viktorijəs) would be more analogical, and we do not make the last syllable (-oos), notwithstanding Latin -ösus ; just as we make $-a l=(-\mathrm{el})$, notwithstanding Latin-älis. For a similar reason a final unaccented -ice, -ite, -ine, -ise, should have had ( $i$ ), not the ( $\sigma^{\prime}$ i) now so general in recent words.

A difficulty arises with respect to French words recently introduced which retain their French form. As long as the persons using a word are conscious of its nationality, they make more or less successful or feeble attempts to imitate the French pronunciation, so that we get cmnui (onwii•), aide-de-camp (ee-dikəs), coup d'eil (kuupdxoo' $i \cdot 1$ ), cnvelope ( $0 \cdot n v=l o o p$ ), environs ( $0 \cdot n v i r o n$ ), chef d'euvre (sheeduu $\cdot v e$ ) coup d'état (kuuditaa•), and similar hybrid monstrosities. When the words remain French, they must take their chance, but, when possible, they should be anglicised on the old French models. A list of the oldest French words used in English is given in the Appendix III. to Dr. Morris's Historical Outlines of English Accidence (2nd ed. 1872). But without this knowledge, we see that (e‘nvelap, enva' $\imath^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{renz}$ ) are good Enghish. Perhaps (tshiif, menuu•ve) would hardly preserve (tshiif•duu:re) from being ridiculous, and hence the English 'masterpiece' is preferable. Bayonet is given as (bee'onet, bee'sənet) by different orthoepists. I have never heard any one say so. (Bee'net) is usual in civil life, but (bær net) is heard among officers and (bæ'genet) among privates. All similar French technical words should have their English technical pronunciation assigned. As for the modern Indian words, they ought to receive the pronunciation current among English residents in India. The old Arabic words have already a character of their own, and cannot be touched. But it is really a pity that we dare not simply anglicise them, as the French unreservedly gallicise all imports.

The above remarks are meant simply to draw attention to the subject. I have so often and so explicitly renounced all claim to dictate on English pronunciation that my "ought, should," ete., cannot be taken to mean more than emphasised suggestions, consequent on the adoption of a proposed theory.

## American Pronunclation.

Before closing this section, I feel that some notion of American pronunciation should be given. This stands in a totally different relation to received English from the provincial. It is rather traditional English, as was seen by Noah Webster's remarks (pp. 1063-70). Americans generally claim to speak English without provincialisms, and in the sense in which English provincialisms exist, namely as distinct dialcetal forms, with historical pedigrees,
at least as respectable as the received form of speech, the claim is correct. But in the sense that local pronunciations do not clearly exist, I have good Americall authority for saying that the claim is unfounded. Owing perhaps to this absence of dialects, Americans consider that, on the whole, they speak "better" than the English. I do not pretend to decide as to "better" or "worse," but certainly they speak "differently" from the English; that is, despite of the many admissible varieties of received English, the American varieties are inadmissible-from an Englishman. A few, a rery few, Americans seem to have acquired English habits, but eren then a chance word, such as (tree'jt) for (tree'j) =trait, reveals the speaker's home. The intonation is rarely English, eren when all nasality is absent; but this is a point I purposely omit to notice, though it is often the most striking peculiarity the speakers exhibit.

## An American Preacher,

 a personal friend of my own. He lived in Virginia for the first 21 years of his life, which, he tells me, in " pronunciation differs from the North as Naples from Florence, Baden from Berlin, or (almost) Yorkshire from London." After that he came to the North, and acquired new babits of speech, which again, in the last few years, have been crossed by London associations. Hence some of the points noted may belong to different localities in the United States. I hare not noted Londonisms of course. The pronunciations are noted from his public speaking. In private conrersation the differences were not so marked. Of course there is more than usual doubt as to the exact sounds in this and the following case, owing to the greater difference between the speaker's pronunciation and my own, which is added after a ( - ) as usual.acorn ee $)$ ken-ee kan
already $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{A}} \cdot \mathrm{Ir}$ : di -Alre $\mathrm{d} i$
apparent epee• $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{L}}$ ent-rpee'rynt
Aryan ærítun-aarien
atonement stoo $n \mathrm{~nm} \mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{nt}}$ - $\mathrm{etoo} \cdot \mathrm{nmynt}$
Boston Ba ${ }^{\text {A }}$ 'stu - Bo'sten
eareer kerce'-kerii'
chastisement tsher'stai'zmL_ynt-tshæ.stizmynt
classes thah'stiz-klaarsyz
comeliness ko'mlines-ka mlinys
commene komiun•n-ko miúun
construed konstrux d-ko nstruud
data daa tr-dee ta
diseretion diskri sh'n—diskreshen
divine divaa' $i$ - d - $\mathrm{ro}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ n
doth dooth - dath
dreary drii'ri-drii'ri
elements $\mathrm{e} \cdot \mathrm{lem} \mathrm{m}$ ns- $\mathrm{e} \cdot \lim y \mathrm{nts}$
fossil forsl-fo $\cdot$ sil
gelid ge-lid-dzhe-lid
grapple grah•pl—greopl
great greet-grce'jt

harassed нетаа'st—не rost


leniently len $i_{L}$ entli-lii-nijuntli mendieant me nd $\mathrm{ikl}_{\text {zont }}$-me ndikrut mereuntile ma kentil-mav*kenta'il moment moo $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{L}}$ ənt—moo $\mathrm{m} y \mathrm{nt}$ momentary moo-mentari-moo menteri most moost-moost
motion moo'shen-moo shen
mouth móhuth—ma'uth
museum miúuzivm-míázii'vm notion noo shn-noo shen ou'u ${ }^{\circ} 0^{\circ} \mathrm{O} \mathrm{nh}-00^{\prime}$ un
Palestine Pe•lystiin-Prelesto in
perfeet r. pəafe kt —pəə fekt
pucrile py'vril-piä’ril
robes roo bzs-roobz
room rum-ruum
Satan see tnh - see'ten
secular sii $\cdot \mathrm{kianl}$ - se kiúle
sophistry soo fistri-so fistri
stone stoon stoo'un ston-stoo'un
substratum sabstraa‘tem-sobstree’jtem sure syy'-shui'
swamps swa mps -sivomps
testimony te'stimooni-te'stimen $i$
throne throon-throo'wn
.used [ = aceustomed] Jyst-siáust

## An Anerican Lady Lecturer,

highly educated, graduate of an American university, with quiet manner, good delivery, and evidently carefully studied proniunciation.
aford æfoo' d —вfoo'. d
always $\mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{lWez}-\mathrm{AA} \cdot \mathrm{lweez}$
apportionment apoo'shnmynt-rpoo'=
shenmynt
before bifoo $0^{\circ}$--bifoo'
both booth-booth
career kejriir-kerii [the final (-iir) was very marked, not even (-ii'r)]
character kah•rekte-kærekte
Chieago shikadgoo
chivalrie shive 1 rik-tshivelrik [this is one of the new importations; chivalry as an old word should be (tshi$i$ velri), see suprà p. 682, v. 45).] class tlaas-klaas, [but tl-, dl-) are very usual initials in place of ( $\mathrm{kl}-, \mathrm{gl} \cdot$ ) in England]
eloser klo 'se—kloo' $w$ 'se
combative kəmbæ'tiv-ka mbetiv
compared kempнсе'd-kempee'd [pro-
bably the (рн) was accidental]
eulture $\mathrm{ka} \cdot \mathrm{l}$, tshe- $\mathrm{k} \cdot \mathrm{ltin}$ ' [but (-tshe) is quite common in England]
demand dimaah nol-dimaa nd
diffieulties di•fukaltiz-di fikeltiz
dog doog-dog
economieal e:konə•mikl-ii:kono•mikrl
edueator e•dzhukeetas'-e diákee te [the (edzhzt) is not uncommon in England]
egotism ii $\cdot$ gotiz'm—e'gotiz'm
emburrassment embahrasmynt - emberesmynt
err æ’一әэ
expenditure ekspe'nditshiú-eksp•nditiü' [or (ekspe $\cdot n d i j$ tshe), the latter is very common in England]
first fəəhst fex'st—fəəst
forth foo'th—foo'th
funds fandz-fondz
girls groolz-gəalz [this is one of the most difficult words to note in English ; it is perhaps the only word in which I persistently palatise (g), as (gəolz) is very harsh to my ears; of course (gælz) is very common, and I have heard ( $g x^{\prime} 1 z$ ) as a studied pronunciation. See ( $\left.1156, e^{\prime}\right)$.]
home нhоo'итm-ноо'wm
importanee impan'tns-impan'tens
introduee $i$-ntrodurs-introdiúus
leisure lii'zhe-le'zhe [(lii'zhe) is not uncommon in England, but it is archaic]
loeated lo 0 keted—lokee $\cdot \mathrm{ty}$ d
long lasq-loq
marsh mah'sh-maash
Michigan Mivshigen
mischief mis $\mathrm{tshin} \cdot \mathrm{f}-\mathrm{m} i \cdot \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{tsh} i \cdot \mathrm{f}$
mutual miún tshiávl-miúu tiúupl [but (miúutshel) is very common in England]
naturally nætshiúreli-næ`tiúreli [but (tsh) is quite common in England]
new níy no'y (?)-niúu [the diphthong: was very difficult to catch]
no noo[u-noo' $w$
none noon-non
only o.nli-oo'w.nli [but ( $0 \cdot \mathrm{nl} i$ ) is not uncommon in England]
open oo'pron-oo'pn
parent peerrynt-pee'rynt
prudent pro'y-dynt - pruu ${ }^{\text {dynt }}$ [see new]
radius re dias-ree dias
St. Louris Sent Luu - is
say seee ${ }_{L}$ - ${ }^{-}$see'j [this was an accidental emphasis apparently]

store stoo'-stoo'
sure shíyy' (?)-shuu'
surely shiurela' $i-$ shuu' $1 i$
surveillanee sevi-Irens-serce loens [this is one of our unsettled importations] test te ${ }^{\text {Est }}$-test
towns tha' $u$ nz--ta'unz [the (tre) was no doubt accidental]
traits tree'ts-trec'jz

wrath raath-risth
wrong roaq-roq
year sï"-

One of the most striking features of these prommeiations in connection with older English pronunciation is the continual cropping up of (oo) where we have now ( $o o, o o^{\prime} w$ ) and again the use of ( $\left(00^{\prime}\right.$, 00 )e), for ( $0 O^{\prime}$ ) which has still more recently tended to ( $A A^{\prime}, \Delta A$ ) for -ore. The diphthongal forms for $e w, u$, are transitional, from (éu, yy), and are difficult to catch, but seem to confirm these two as the generating forms. Some of the pronunciations are, however, probably of American development, for our language has been cultirated with great care in the United States, not only in literature, but in orthoepy, and the pronouncing dictionaries there published are much esteemed in England.

Although perhaps not quite in place, I here insert some American words and observations on diversities of American pronunciations furnished me by Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, of Hartford, Connec-
ticut, U.S., and Mr. Charles Astor Bristed, of Yale Coll., Connecticut, U.S., and Trinity College, Cambridge, England, in 1871. Dr. Trumbull gave the pronunciation in Glossic, which I have transliterated. Mr. Bristed has not written pronunciations systematically; I have inserted palaeotypic interpretations to the best of my judgment.

## Dr. Trumhull's Notes on Amelicanisms.

Cade, bred by hand; cosset, (keed). This old English word is still in use by farmers, etc., near Newport, R.1., who talk of 'cade lambs,' 'cade colts.' I have not heard of it elsewhere in the U.S.
Char, r. and n. (tshoo.) always, I believe, in the U.S., except the occasional (tshoə.) and pl. (tshoəaz) of laborers and farm servants.
Bogie, Boguy, a bugbear, (bu•ge). Common, among boys and the uneducated, in Connecticut. (Dh' bu'gez-'l ke'tsh-Ji).
Drool or dreul (druul, dríul), for 'drivel,' used everywhere by mothors and nurses. The latter is the less polished form.
Ewe. Commonly (Jiúu), but twenty ago I very often heard ( 300 ) from farmers, butchers, and others in eastern Connecticut and R. Island.
Eft ( $=$ Newt), (e $\left.\cdot v i t, e^{\prime} \cdot v e t\right) . \quad$ Common in Conn. 'Newt' is rarely used; 'eft' (monosyll.) never, I think. (A.S. efete.)

Fice, Fise, (fais). A worthless dog, a cur. Virginia and the southern States. Common, though I have not met with it in print, except in a Choctaw-English Vocabulary from a southern mission-press, 1852. Compare, foisty,-" foisting cur" (Nares), - 'fiee,' in Grose, - 'fiest, fice, fist,' Wright's Prov. Gloss.
Fillip, n. and r. (flip), always. I never heard it as a dissyllable in N. England.

Gambrel, roof, (gæ $\cdot \mathrm{mbl}$ gre $\cdot \mathrm{mbel}$ ). N. England, common; thirty years ago, nearly universal.
"to Gange." In a list of "words common at Polperro in Cornwall," in Notes and Qucries, 1 S., x. 301, I find this word with the meaning : "to arm with wire the line attached to the fishing hook." ["To gange a hook is to arm it and the suood with a fine brass or copper wire twisted round to prevent their being bitten off by the fish." Glossary to the History of Polperro, by Jouathan Couch,
F.L.S., Truro, 1871.] Almost all N.E. fishermen know how to (gænz) -or, as many pronounce it, to (gænzh, grendzh) a hook - though the word is not in our dictionaries. Here, the ganzing by which the hook is secured to the lime, and the line protected, is done by winding them with wased linen thread or silk twist (Fr. ganse), whence I suppose the name, and not from Fr. 'ganche,' Sp. 'ganacho,' a hook.
Gumption, (gə mshən) ; more common, colloquially, in N.E. forty years ago, than it now is. I never heard the $p$ sounded. (Hii-z noo gə mshən) or (Hii Heent got noo grashən).
Lean-to (addition to a building), (li`nte). Conn. and Mass., the common pronunciation, among farmers, etc. I never heard (lii ntuu, lii-ntx). Mich, v. (miitsh), part. (mii'tshin). Connecticut, farmers, laborers, etc., -as in speaking of a dog or cat (goo in mii•tshin round), or of a

Refiuse, adj. and n., (refiudzh), and sometimes (rə ffedzh). N.E., lumbermen, joiners, provision dealers, etc. - for the lowest merchantable quality of any description of goods. In a Boston paper of Dec. 3, 1716, I find advertised, "Refuse alias Refuge Fish" for sale. Common twenty years ago,-but much less common now.
Whoppet, (whopit). A harmless cur, or mongrel dog. Connecticut. and elsewhere iu New England. Common, in the rural distriets, though omitted by Bartlett and Webster. Wright, Prov. Gloss., has "Whappet; the prick-cared cur." Here, the name has a larger denotation.
Mr. Bristed's Notes on American Pronunclation.

## South Carolina.

The inhabitants of Clarleston, and all the Southern and South-Eastern part of this State, pronounce initial $w$ (whether at the beginuing of a word or syllable) like $\because$. Like $v$ to me ; perhaps you would call it (bh) or German
$v$ (which I own myself unable to distinguish from $v$ ). This peculiarity is common to all classes, except those of the upper class who have lived in Europe or at the North. Theyare not aware of it. I cannot find any European origin for it. It is supposed to come from the negroes. Teachers from the middle of the State have told me that the boys from the central and northern districts pronounce $w$ in the usnal and correct way. [Prof. Marel, in his letter to me of 22 March, 1872 , from which I have already so largely quoted (1092, c. 1143, c), says: "A large part of the people of this region (Easton, Pennsylvania, U.S.), which was settled by Germans, do not use their teeth for English $v$, or make with $w$ the usual English sonancy, and they are said, therefore, to exchange $v$ and $v$. I dare say the facts are the same at Charleston, South Carolina, of which Mr. Bristed speaks. I have heard it said that the South Carolina chauge was started by German market gardeners about Charleston, but one would think that there must have been some general tendency to this lautverschiebung, or it could have hardly gained currency, as it has, among that proudest and precisest of colonial literary aristocracies. It looks like it too, that they sound $r$ like $w$, or drop it. Mister is Mistoow (mistuuw?) they say,-one of my slight diphthongal $u \mathrm{~s}$, I suppose, if really any." In another part of his letter he had said: "As to the naturalness of $w$, I notice that my children, just catching sonnds, not only make $w$ in its own place, but also for other letters, regularly for $r$," [in which case perhaps it is a substituted lip trill with tense lips, or $(\mathrm{u})$, see $(9, c d)$,] "and for $w h$ they make $f$. This last is an unknown change here in mature speech." As to the American interchange of $v, w$, see Webster's remark $(1067, d)$ relating to Boston and Philadelphia, where he observes $w$ used for $v$, which in the case of Philadelphia Prof. Mareh, no doubt correctly, has just ascribed to the influence of German $w(\mathrm{bh})$. There is a well-known cockneyism by which (v, w) are said to interchange in England. We all know that old Weller in Pickwick spelled his name with "a we." Dr. Beke considers, from personal experience, that the sound is really (bh), which is heard as (w) for (v) and as (v) for (w) ; and he believes that in Naples and Rome there is the same tendency
among the uncducated to substitute (bh) for (v). This opinion was contained in a private letter, in answer to another gentleman, who informed me that he had heard Romans, especially Roman beggars, use (w) for (v). I had never noticed this habit myself when in Rome, and my son, who was in Rome at the time when I received this information, did not succeed in hearing more than an occasional German (bh), with which sound he was well acquainted. But more recently a Scotch lady informed me that she had certainly heard ( $w$ ) and not ( bh ) for ( v ) in Rome. It is a point requiring investigation, and as it has considerable philological interest, I think it right to dratw attention to it here. I have never been fortunate enough to hear ( $\mathbf{w}, \mathrm{v}$ ) confused in London, naturally, off the stage and out of story-books. But I recollect when a boy bearing people at Canterbnry regularly saying what sounded to me as (wæn) for van, and one respectable pianoforte tuner, after vainly trying to say vico. bringing out something like (wuu). But this was in days when I had no notion of German (bh). The confusion of $v$ and $v$ is also reported from East Kent, and East Anglia generally. The Charleston confusion, however, is a remarkable phenomenon.]
[In a later communication Mr. Bristed adds:] We (that is, all Americans except the Carolinians aforesaid, and possibly the Southern negroes generally; I am not sure on this last point) say hwen, putting the aspirate before the digamma, so that, were the monosyllable prolonged to a dissyllable, it would be (huen) or (he en). [Sce (pp. 1142-3).] The Carolinians who say $v$ (or what I call $v$ ) for $w$, do not, I think, mix any aspirate with it ; they say ven, not hven. But I am not absolutely cortain of this. [In his original notes respecting South Carolina, Mr. Bristed added:] Also common to all classes, and also uneonscious, is the old re-actionary Anti-Irish pronunciation of (ii) for (ec), cheer for chair. But it seems confined to some words, e.g. they don't say fcar (fiir) for fair (feer). [Writing subsequently, he says on this point:] I have discovered that the last century pronunciation (tshiir) [the trilled (r) in this and the following examples is possibly an oversight] for chair is not so common in

South Carolina as I had supposed. On the other hand, I have found in some of the best educated Charlcstonians the still more archaic pronuucia. tion (cer) for car, e.g. (feer) for far, (reer) for rear, (beerd) for beard, etc., etc. Not having a nice musical ear, I will not be certain that the sound is quite as long as (ce), but for practical purposes it is the same; proof, I first observed it from supposing that a friend had said fare when he meant to say fear. (Beerd) for bcard is heard in other parts of America (and of England I suppose), but the general substitution of (eer) for car seems to be Carolimian. The pronunciation is involuntary, and acknowledged by the natives to be heretical; it is not like their (kjard) and (gjard), of which they are proud as of shibboleths. It is never found without the $r$; no Charlestonian would say (pcez) for peas as an Irishman docs. [Considcring that some of the earliest cases of ea sounding as (ii) occur before ( r ), these archaisms are very interesting.]

## Gulf States generally.

All classes, from Virginia to Georgia inclusive, have a sort of shibboleth of which they are proud. It is the old Sheridan and Walker insertion of $y$ before $a$ after initial $c$ and $g$; gyarden for garden, kyard for card. I believe Sheridan and Walker only inserted the $y$ when $a$ is followed by $r$; but our Southerners say kyamp for camp. [This means possibly only (gaa•dn, kaad, kæmp). $]$ I do not know how far this pronunciation extends westward; for instance, if it is found in Alabama, I am pretty sure it is not in Mississippi, and a fortiori in Louisiana and Texas.

## New England.

All but the best educated New Englanders make an insertion before ow final in monosyllables. Probably most persons would explain this insertion as ă nasalized. I don't think so, e.g. I don't think the New England cow is like the first syllable of the Spanish causa. Some make the insertion ${ }^{\text {e. }}$ I consider it $y$. Hyow for cow, nyow for nou: [Probably ( $k x^{\prime}$ ', njæ' $u$ ), see the extract from Webster ( $\left.1066, b^{\prime}\right)$. If there is nasality, it will be (ke' $u$, nije' ${ }^{\prime}$ ().] Whatever nasalization there is, seems to me to lie in the diphthong itself, not in the preceding insertion. I think this is clear from polysyllables,
e.g. around, where there is no insertion that I can detect, but there is a nasalization or twang. [Possibly (breč, und) see (136,d).] The New Englanders sometimes lengthen $\breve{b}$ into au. Nouthing (or more commonly nauthin) for nothing. [Possibly (nAA thin) or merely (novethin), which would be more historical.] On the other hand, they frequently substitute $\check{u}(\partial)$ for $\bar{o}(o o)$, stun, hull, for stone, whole. The substituted rovel is the pure and simple English ü. The New England pronunciations of stonc, whole, are preciscly the English words stun, hull. [They sound to me more like (ston, hol) than (stan, нәl).] There is, however, one word, in which the people of Massachusetts (not the other New Englanders, so far as I have observed) substitute 厄̌b for $\bar{o}$. That word is coat, for which they say cot (kot). It is just possible the sound may be a little longer than cot (ko ${ }^{\circ \mathrm{t}}$ ), but it certainly is not so long as caught, or as Italian o aperto. [The Italian o aperto is by no means always or generally long, so that I attributed a medial length to this vowel; but in a subsequent letter Mr. Bristed says:] Since I wrote to you, I have observed that the Massachusetts pronunciation caught for coat, about which I was doubtful, does exist; within a fortnight I have heard it, as broad as possible, from a lady. Some Massachusetts men maintain that the short sound usually given in Massachusetts (especially Eastern Mass.) to the $\bar{o}$ of coat is not $\check{\delta}$, but the short sound of $\overline{0}$, a sound which, if it exists, has a constant tendency to run into $\breve{0}$ or $\breve{u}$. [Short ( $o$ ) certainly seems to exist in English dialects and in America, but it is frequently misheard as (a), and it is singular that in Mr. I. Pitman's phonography (oo, $\partial$ ) are represented by marks which should systematically represent them to be the long and short of the same sound. All this again is attributable to the relation of ( $a, o$ ) and $(0, o h)$, where the vowels in cach pair are due to the same position of the tongue, and differ only by the "rounding" or "lip-shading." This again leads to the common affected drawl (əo'oh) for ( 00 ). In the same letter Mr. Bristed notes having heard root made (rut), rhyming to foot; and deaf callod (diif), sce ( $1069, c$ ), by educated speakers. He adds:] Nearly all the New Englanders say testimany and tervitōry.

The pronunciation fort'n, nāt'r, [possibly (faA ${ }^{\prime}$ n, nee'te)] for fortune, nature (the very shortest possible indistinct vowel substituted for $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ), was traditional in New England, and only went out in the present generation. [It is xvir th-century Englisis.] When I was a boy at Tale College (Connecticut), in 1839, some of the older professors said fort' $n$, nāt'r, etc.

The Bostonians and the people of Eastern Massachusetts generally are popularly accused of superfluous final g: capting, Bosting, for eaptain, Boston. Or to be more accurate, they are charged with substituting $n g$ (q) for various short terminations. I. have not observed this particularly in them. It seems to me a vulgarism general in both England and America. Dickens's Mrs. Gamps and Hay's Western Colonels say parding for pardon. But I have observed that the Bostonians lay musual stress on these short final syllables. This winter [1870-1] a Boston young lady observed to me, "You New Yorkers say, 'the chick'n goes up the mount'n.'" I retorted, "What do you say? The chicking goes up the mounting?" She replied, "No, the chickenn goes up the mountenn." (That is the nearest I can come to literating her.) [Possibly (tshi $i$ kkenn, máu nntenn), exaggerating for the purpose of illustration. Smart marks (tshik•en, máau•nteen). I think (tshi $\mathrm{k} i \mathrm{in}$, ma' $^{*} \cdot \mathrm{nten}$ ) or (-tin) are common. But (tshìkn, máu nentn) or (tshi$\cdot \mathrm{ken}$, mo'u $\cdot$ nten) are disagreeable to my ears. Some persons likewise say (Læ’tn, Sæ'tn, prodn), but these sounds are going out of use.]

## New York.

I am a native New Yorker, though not now resident in the State. This fact disqualifies me in a measure from noticing our peculiarities. Indeed, I know of but one, which has come up in the better classes within the last twenty years, and is (I think) more common with young women than young men. It consists in dropping medial $r$, and thinning the indistinct vowel before it into a very short e, e.g. fest (fest) for first. [I have myself noticed in many Americans a tendency of this kind in the pronunciation of the word America, from which the $r$ seems to be lost, or not trilled at all, and the $e$ curionsly obscured, something like (əmə $)$ ike),
with a tendency to (əmə $\mu_{0}$ ika amə.)rika), but the vowel used for $e$, for which I have helplessly written (a), does not glide on to the following ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}, r$ ) in the slightest degree. But the same speakers pronounce a trilled (r) before vowels habitually in other cases.]

## Western States.

I have never been in them, and only know from common report that among the less edncated classes, the pronunciation (a, az) for (ee) is universal. Bar for bear, far for fair, straunger for stranger. [Possibly remnants of (bæær, fæær, streæ ndzher), misheard. Mr. Bristed finds a difficulty in understanding ( $(æ, æ)$ in palaeotype, which seems to him "to embrace all sorts of sounds, from the shortest continental sound of $a$ to ordinary English $\bar{u}$. This," says he, "causes confusion. I am not sure how you pronounce plaid; it seems to me that you call it plăd." I call it (plæd), and it is curious that the American Worcester gives no other pronunciation; I have heard (pleed) called a Scotticism, which Mr. Bristed thinks the only right sound, as he says of mine, it " is surely a mistake, according to Scott's rhymes plaid, laid, maid, etc. Perhaps your (ææ) is that 'fifth sound of $a$, $a i$ in fair,' given in the old dictionaries, Walker, etc., which to me has always seemed a myth. I mean I can't make out any difference between fair and fure." Walker made noue, but I have adduced these facts to shew what difficulties variety of pronunciation throws in the way of indicating sounds by keywords. As to fair, etc., however, the sound may really be (aa), and not (ææ). Such sounds occur dialectally in England.]

## General Americanisms.

We all (except perhaps some of the negroes?) sonnd distinctly the $h$ of initial wh, just as Hrishmen, Scotchmen, and North-Countrymen do. This I believe to be the only universal Americanism. There is a great difference between the speech of (most) Englishmen and (most) Americans, but it is a musicul diference rather than a letter-power difference. We pitch our conversation in a monotone; Englishwomen appear to a green American to be just going to sing when they talk. [The English return the compliment with interest, which reminds me that
a Pole, whose language to an English ear is all hiss, told me, after hearing Hamlet, that the English words sounded to him as mere hisses !] Some Englishmen think that we lengthen the $i$ more than they. I doubt it. I don't think, for instance, that we say (taim) for (to'im). [Many Americans do say (táam), and even (táa $i m$ ).] All Americans pronounce vase to rhyme with case. I sce you would rhyme vase with draws. So does Sotheby in his Homer, and I am told this is the British Museum pronunciation. Most Englishmen of my acquaintance sound it with German a (to rhyme with grass ?). Your pronunciation would be unintelligible to most Americans. [Vase has four pronunciations in English: (vaAz), which I most commonly say, is going out of use, (vaaz) I hear most frequently, (veez) very rarely, and (vees) I only know from Cull's marking. On the analogy of case (kees), however, it should be the regular sound. I have known the three first pronunciations habitual among a party of four speakers, to
whom the fourth sound was unknown. Goodrich gives all four sounds; but just as Cull only acknowledged (vees), Smart only admits (veez). As to the British Muscum pronunciation, I find on inquiry that the Antiquities Department call it (vaaz), "to rhyme with papa's." but one of the assistants in that department says he would say (vaaz) of a modern vessel to contain Hlowers (for instance), " in fact," says my authority, "he seemed inclined to distinguish different kinds of vases by the pronunciation."] The vulgar pronunciation of $\bar{i}$ for oi is very general among the less educated New-Englanders, but is chiefly confived to words in oil, boil, spoil, etc. No native says by or (bai) for boy; that is purely Irish. [These are all xyirth century.] I think I have found a New York peculiarity, buddy, nobuddy, for body, nobody, but am not quite certain if the vowel is the indistinct ŭ. [(Noo-brdi) is the most common English, but perhaps Mr. Bristed meant (noo bo $\cdot \mathrm{d}$ ) ; was it ( $\mathrm{n} o \mathrm{o}$ bo $\mathrm{d} i$ ) ? ]

## American Pronunciation according to American Humourists.

The pronunciation indicated by humourists in any language is of course not the pronunciation of the educated part of the pcople. But it must be the pronunciation of a section of the people, and also a widely known pronunciation, or the whole humour of its adoption would be lost. It therefore occurred to me that Dr. Trumbull's and Mr. Bristed's remarks on existent and Noah Webster's on older Americanisms would be best supplemented by a selection of phonetic orthographies from the works of known humourists.

Major Downing's "Letters" appeared in the New York Daily Advertiser in 1833-4, and had a popularity never before equalled in the United States. This book was a political skit on General Jackson's government, and is described in the Quarterly Review, No. 106, as "by far the most amusing, as it must be allowed to be the most authentic, specimen that has as yet [1835] reached Europe of the actual colloquial dialect of the Northern States." They are by this reviewer attributed to "Mr. Davis, of the respectable mercantile house of Brookes and Davis, New York." To these then I give the first place. The whole book is not spelled phonetically, but about as much American orthography is introduced as Scott uses of Scotch spelling in his works, and this I have extracted. With the humourous mode of expression, the grammar, and so forth, I have of course had nothing to do. I quote from the second English edition, published by Murray in 1835, "from the latest New-York edition."

Judge Haliburton's "Clockmaker; or, the Sayings and Doings
of Sam. Slick of Slickville"-of which the introductory letter, attributed to Mr. Slick himself, is dated 25 Dec., 1836-is fully as authentic, but the sprinkling of spellings is rather sparser, and I have not attempted to go through more than about one-sixth of the book.

Charles F. Browne's "Artemus Ward his Book" is made up of contributions to the New York Vanity Fair about 1860. It is almost entirely in picturesque spelling, which is frequently merely grotesque, but generally exhibits specimens of Yankee pronunciation, or what must pass current as such among Americans. His efforts in that way met with general appreciation. From this book I have culled a large number of words without attempting to exhaust the list.

Bret Harte's "Heathen Chinee and other Poems mostly humorous" have furnished me with several pronunciations supposed to be current in the Gold Mining Regions of California.

In quoting these words the letters $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{W}, \mathrm{H}$, refer to Downing, Slick, Ward, and Harte respectively. The addition " occ." shews that the spelling is only occasionally used by the writer to whose letter it is appended.

One of the most striking points to an Englishman on reading them is that there are practically no American Americanisms among them. They are all old friends, known in English humourists, and known in older or dialectal or vulgar English pronunciation. The twang, the intonation, the application, all tend to give them a different effect, but these are absent in the bare phonetic representation. The orthography of the writers is left intact, and I have not ventured to suggest their meaning. There may be some recondite differences with which I am unacquainted; but when the words are read as their spelling would suggest to one used to received pronunciation, the effect is quite familiar.

## 1. Miscellaneous.

The following is an alphabetical arrangement of some words and phrases which could nut be easily classified.
A. Account 'count D, acute cute D SH , a fraid afeard D , against agin D , am not ain't H, are not ain't H, Americans'Merricans $\Pi$, apoplexy appleplexy D, apothecaries pottecaries $\mathbf{D}$, attention tenshon D.
B. Believe bleeve W, bellous bellesses D, be not beant S, beyond beyend D, boisterous boysterious W, by and by bime-by D W.
C. Calculate kalklate D, chimney chimbly D, Chinese n. Chince H, classically? cussycally W, possibly a mere grotesque ; contrariness contrairiness H, cordial cordyal W, put apparently as an uncommon pronunciation, indicating "corjal" as the common? (1069, ${ }^{\prime} b^{\prime}$ ) ; cuphoards cubbords D , curiousest curiesest D.
D. Damned damned S, this is given as an uncommon spelling, "darn'd" being most usual, but in consequence of Webster's remark ( $1067, \varepsilon d$ ) this will be given among the er-words; diamonds diminds W , does not don't D , drowned drownded D , dworst not dursent H .
E. even almost eny most D, een amost, een almost S, evenly? e'eny D, ever a one ary one D.
F. Funcral fun'l H .
G. Gave gin D, evidently the participle used for the preterite, see given; genuine giniwine, genwine D, give gin W, here we have the participle used for the present; given gin D, grew grow'd S.
II. Handkerchiefs handkerchers D, have not hain't D, hant S , have given a gin S, heard hearn D W, the form heerd also occurs, as will be seen afterwards; hers hern S, his (pred.) hisn D , history histry W, holiday hollow-
day D , probably a mere grotesque; hou'soever homsumever howsever D.
I. Idea ide idee D, idee H, idear W, ideas idecs W , is be's H , is not ain't D W H, an't S, isn't If, it is not taint D, tante S, 'tain't II, it was not twarnt D, I was Ise W.
K. Knew know'd D, knoll nole D, this must be merely grotesque spelling, as the sound is received.

## L. Laudanum lodnum D.

M. Namma mam H, military milingtary W, Mississippi Massissippy D, Missouri Mizzoori II, monster monkster W, more than moren mourn W.
N. Necessity needeessity S, also in Irish and in Scotch, so that it is not a mere grotesque; necromancy niekremancy D , never a nary a W H , here there is a mistaken tautology, as nary should mean never $a$, see ever $a$ abore.
O. Of it on't D, only ony D, ordeals ordeels $\mathrm{W}_{\mathbf{\prime}}$ evidently given as a mispronunciation in plaee of orjeels, see cordial above ; but historieally or-deal =ags. or-dâl, would be pronounced as W writes; or-DE-AL is a mere pieee of eonfusion ; ordinary ornery $W \mathrm{H}$, ordinarier ornrear W, ours ourn D S.
P. Particular pertickler H, particuiarly particly W, perhaps p'r'aps H , gopular poplar W, previously previsly W. probably probly W.
R. Regular regler W, rheumatism rumatiz D.
S. Saw p.t. see D, seed S W, secure skewer W, seen p.p. sawn W, serics serious W, shall not sha'nt D, shallow shaller S , singularest singleris $\Pi$, soldiers sogers D, sovereignty suvrinty W. sphere spear W.
T. That there that air W, theirs their'n D, them 'em D S, the other tother D, there are S, tichled tikled D, told tell'd D, tour tower D, towarlls tords W , tremendous tremenjus W .
V. Violent vilent W.
W. Was not warn't D, warnt worn'nt S, were not wa'n't D, will not won't D .
Y. Yours yourn D W.

## 2. Vowels.

In the following some little attempt at classification will be made, but the instanees are not numerous enough to arrive at any satisfaetory result.
A. The oldest (aa) sound remains in stare star H, square squar H, hair-pin har-pin II, and is broadened into (oo), where in England it has sunk to (c),
in chares ehores D. On the oth er hand, it falls into (ee, e) or even (i) in are air W, came kem H, again agen II, agin S, may be mebby W, and completely to (ii) in cars keers W.

Long $a, a i=(e e$, ee) has become (ii) in chair cheer W H, cares keers W, careless keerless H, scared skeery W, James Jeemes H, to which must be reckoned apparel appcerel W; but gave giv W , is probably only the use of the present as past.

The same tendency is shewn in the short vowel a (x) in any eny D, enny W, can kin H, catch kitch ketch D, had hed II, have hev W, that conj. thet H.

Broadening appears in canal kanawl W, sat v. sot D, far fur D, stamped stomped D, but uncertainly in what whot wat TV oec., wat wot H, where the absenee of $h$ is noticeable, as it is generally present, and was war H. Eveu au shews both tendeneies in because caze D, audacity owdassity W, but caught ketched D is merely a weak form of ketch, already cited.

E short is thinned to (ii), which may be (i) in end cend D S, nests neests D, and, as is very eommon in England, to (i) in chest chist S, gencral gincral D, ginral W, generally ginerally W, get git D W, getting gitting gittin' $\Pi$, kettles kittles D W, passengers passinjers W, pretty adj. pretty pritty D. But shews the Scotch broadening tendeney in leg kag W, set p.p. sot S, p.t. sot WV, where there may be a confusion with sat, well adv. wall W , wrestled rastled H .

The long $e e$ is shortened in been ben bin D , but as $e a$ seems to remain (ii), even in New Orleans New Orleens S, heard heerd S W , with which we may class amywhere anywheer $H$, but the old (ee) crops up in real rale D, really raly D , ra'ly H , beard baird H , and some other cases, for whieh see er.

The following are very common in England: neither nother nuther D, chereing chawin W, ewe yo S, newspaper noospaper W.
I. In if ef W H, sit set D, we have a tendency opposite to that of get git. Little leetle D W is common here, but squirc square $W$ is very strange.

There seems to be a tendeney to sink all unaecented vowels into ( $i$ ), or perhaps Mr. Bell's ( $y$ ), see ( $1159, b$ ), and it is worth while notieing this, beeause a similar tendency shews itself in Irish,
and ( $i$ ) is constantly used in Buchanan, see the vocabulary, pp. 1072-1083. See the Irish examples below. Extra extry W, panorama paneramy W, opera opery opry W, actually actilly S, animal animil W, counterpane counterpin D , manage manige W , poem poim W , garments garmints W, trouser's trowsis W, nephew nevey H , region regine W , passion pashin D , waistcoat weskit W , argument argyment W .

O seems to assume all varieties of different local English forms, so that any classification is difficult. It becomes (aa) in roar rar' H, (uu) in boast boost D, more moore W, falls to (a) in home hum D W, whole hull D W, stone stun L W, nobody nobuddy W, and even to (i) in rose v. riz D Wु H, cover kiver D W, with which we may compare touching techin W, while it varies in the same writer in bosom boozum bizzum W. Then we find solder sawder S, boulders bowlders H , thought tho't D, borght bo't D.

The (oo) sound varies, as (áu) in route rowt W , (ia) in chooses chuses D, boots butes TV, do dew W occ., through thru' D, threw D W, zoological zewological W , the last being derived from the "zoo"; and (ə) in tonk tuk W, roof ruff D, and you yu W, your yer $H$, the two latter used enclitically.

The diphthong OI is treated as long $\bar{\imath}$ in all those cases in which it was so sounded in the xriit th and xviri th centuries. Thus: appointed appinted D , boil bile D, boiling bilin W, bilin' H, broiling brilin D, hoisted histed W, join jine D W H, loins lions W, which of course is merely grotesque for lines, oil ile D W, point pint W, pointing pintin W, points p'ints H, poison pyson S, pizen W H, soil sile W, soiled siled D , spoils spiles D.

U . The prefix $u n$ - is generally on -, as in uneasy oneasy S W, unparalleled onparaled W, unpleasant onpleasant S W, unsatisfactory on-satis-factory H. In a few words short $u$ is $e, i$, as just jest D, jist D S, common in London, judge u. jedge. H, compare Scotch (dzhadzh), such sich D W, shut shet H, very old. The form shut p.p. shot W , seems to be founded on some confusion.

The long $\bar{u}$ when accented constantly becomes (un), a well-known Euglish vulgarism, but dating apparently from after the xvith century, and the preceding $s, t$, do not then become (sh,
tsh) ; but this is by no means always the case, as will be seen from the examples of consonants given below. Thns: actuate actooate W, adieuadoo W, amusing amoozin W, circuitous sircooitius W, confused koufoozed W, constitution constitooshun W, dispute dispoot W, excuse excoos W, gratuitous gratooitus W , impudence impoodents W , including incloodin W, individual individooal W, influenre infloounce W, lunatic loonytick W, misance noosanse W , obtuse obtoos W , peculiar pocooler W, punctually puncktooally W, pursuc pursoo W, resumed resoomed W, spiritual sperretooul W, subdued subdood W, sued sood W, suit soot W, untutored nutootered W, virtuous virtoous W. It will be observed, however, that all these examples are from W. After $l$ and $r$ this change is received, but W furnishes both bloo and blew for bluc.

Unaccented $u$ in open syllables, which, though always very short (iú), is called long by our orthoepists, seems mostly to become (i, $i$ ). Thus: education idecation edication S , minute n . minet S , minit H , minutes minits W , valuation valeation S , value valy S , regulating regelatin D , ridiculous ridikilous II .

Final and unaccented -ure is usually treated exactly as er, and generally does not inflnence the preceding consonants, as creature critter cretur D, creeter critter W, creatures critters S, features featurs S , figures figers D , figgers W, future futer W, finjure inger D, legislature legislatur D, nature natur D S, nater W, natural nateral S, natral W, pasture pastur S. pictures picters W, rapture rapter W, venture venter W, pressure presher W. The last word is exceptional. It will be found that these foreign words are very irregularly treated in the English dialects, probably depending on the time of their having been first used.

## 3. The Consonant $R$.

ER, EAR, UR. The treatment of vowels before $R$ is very curious in America, dependent partly on the $R$ having become thoroughly vocal, and partly on the retention of the old ar forms, with which $u$ forms have been confused. A few er-words retain their form as er, ear, or air, thus: dern dern II, earth airth S, yearth W, early airly S , pert peart L . But the rule is
for all such words to become ar, as: learn larn D S, learned larned D, larn'd S, search sarch S, astern astarn D S, bear bar W, certain certin sartin D , sartain S , certainly sartinly W , certify sartify D, coneern concarn S, concerned consarncd W, converse convarse W, dern v. darn D W, derned darned S. dernation darnation D , tarnation S, deserved desarv'd D, determined detarmined D, early arly W, earth arth W, crrund arrand S, eternal tarnal D, etarnal S, eternallest tarnulest W, cternity etarnity D S, infernal infarnal D W, Jerscy Jarsey (?), merchant marchant D , Lord have mercy Lord a massy S , nervous narvous H , observed obsarved W , observes obsarves W , preserved presarved D W, sermons sarmons S , scive sarve D S, uncertain onsartin S W, universe univars S , verses varses D , to which may be added there thar W H, where whar W, blurt blart S, disturb distarb W.
R. The late Prof. Hadley, in reviewing the first part of this work, after quoting my remarks suprà p. 197, says: "It is fortunate for this muchabused letter that so large a part of the English-speaking world is found in America, where the first settlers brought this $r$ in a less attenuated state, and where their descendants have been largely reinforced by users of a yet stronger $r$ from Ireland and Scotland and the Continent of Europe. Instead of losing the final $r$, like our brethren in Southern England, we are more likely to restore it to its ancient equivalency with the initial letter." (Essays, 1873, p. 252.) See also Prof. Haldeman's remarks (1195, $b^{\prime}$ ). My own experience of polished American speech does not bear out this remark. No approach to an Irish or Scotch $r$ final seems to be made. If a trill was ever used by the speakers I observed, it must have been very faint, for I am constantly awake to trills, and should have certainly remarked it. An untrilled $r$, perhaps as much of a consonant as ( $r_{n}$ ), I seem to have heard; I think I have heard at least one American preacher say (Hhæ(rt) where I say (Haat), - a matter of choice, (Hart) presenting no difficulty to me. But that Dickens' smorl tork for small talk would have becn as easily written by an American as by an English humourist will be quite apparent from the following instances, which shew that
ar or are recognized ways of writing (aa A1) without implying the least trill or vowel (a) in place of a trill. It follows therefore that such a pronunciation must be familiar to American ears from American mouths. No American humourist could otherwise have ventured to use it.

1 fter arter D S W, ah! ar W, à la ar-lar W, amassed amarsed W, basking barskin W, calm carm W, danced darnced W, daughter darter D S H, earned ernt, rhyming to want D , half harf W , Iago Iargo W , last larst W, lather larther W, laugh laff D, larf W, laughable larfable W, laughed laft D, larfed larved S , laughing laffin D , larfin S, Madam marm S W, pa par W, pass pars W, passed parst W, pasture parster W, sauce sass D W, sarse sarce S saucer sasser D, and similarly awful orful W, off orf W, offsprings orfsprings W, officer orficer W, thought thort thawt W , the last being an identification of or aw by W.

In the following we have not only the $r$ omitted, but the vowel which was before it shortened, shewing its utter disappearance even from the thought of the speaker. Horse hoss W , horses hosses W, burst bust D W, busted H, bursting bustin W, curse cuss IV II, cursing cussin D, coloured culled W, first fust W , lmterns lantuns W , nursing nussing W, persons pussons W, purse puss W , worse wuss W , worser wusser W. And I would explain girl gal H, girls gals D , galls S , in the same way, gerls becoming first garls and then gals (gəolz gæælz gælz), and similarly pretty having the $r$ "transposed" becomes perty, and then, putty D W, of which pooty D H is regarded only as another form. In scarcely scacely $W$ we have a simple omission of $r$, with probably a corresponding omission of its modification of $(e e)$ into (ee), which is also found dialectally in England.
ER, UR, as an indistinct vowel where no trace of trill can be reasonably supposed, shews this vocality more completely. Thus it stands for A unaccented in afloat erflote W, drama dramer W, orphan orfurn W, spectacles specterkuls W , valise verlise W , umbrclla umbreller W, vista vister W, to which may be added the common always allers W II, generally written allus in England:-for E unaccented in elements ellermunts W, elephants
ellerfunts W, intellectual interlectooal W, tragedy traggerdy W:-for I unaccented in dignify dignerfy W, exhibited exhiberted W, pusillanimous pussylanermus W, signify siggerfy W, specimen spesserman W, veracity verrasserty W:-for $0,0 \mathrm{~W}$, unaccented very frequently, as bellowed bellered W , billows billers W, calico caliker W, fellow feller D S W H, followed follered W, gallows gallers W, hollowed hollerd W, innocent innercent W, negroes niggers D , patronised patrernized W, politest perlitest D , political perlitercal purlittercal W, potatocs pertaters W, shadow shadder W, sorrows sorrers W, swallow swaller W, tallow taller W H, cociferously versifrussly W, window winder S W , widow widder H , yellow yaller S H, yeller W; in following follerin W there is a suspicion of a trill, but it is not certain, and even if it existed, it would only be similar to the usual euphonic London $r$; in colonel kurnel S, identified in the passage cited with Kernel kuruel S, we have a received pronunciation; considering of as $o^{\prime}$, the following come under this category: kind of kinder D S W H, sort of sorter, ought to oughter H, onto onter W ; but in provisions pervishuns W it is doubtful whether there is not a confusion of pro- and per- as pre-fixes:-for $U$ unaccented in ague ager H , continues coutiuners W , continuing continnering W , with possible trill, deputised deppertised W, invaluable invalerble W , sublime surblime W. In glorious gerlorious W , slave ser-lave W , prairie per-rairie per-ar-ie 11, it takes the part of an exaggerated ('h), and the same is the case for the ludicrously prefixed ker-, sometimes used in W, as slap kerslap W.

These examples shew that in America, as it will be seen in § 2 , No 10 , is the case also in England, $r$ has become a mere means, first of writing ( $a, ~ \Delta A$ ), and secondly of indicating a long or a brief ('h, o, b ), that is, one which has either only that short glide which follows a long vowel, or else no glide on to the succeeding consonant. In both cases $r$ may consequently be considered as the sign of lengthering. Its use in this respect is similar to that of $s$ in older French (831, $a b^{\prime}$ ), and of $l$ in Scotch (Murray, p. 123), having like them no historical foundation, and, so far as the nsual value of these letters $r, s, l$, is concerned, no phonetic signiti-
cance. They merely arose from the fact that in many words the phonetic values of $r, s, l$, had been lost, where hey once existed, and the preceding vowel lengthened. With regard to the short -er, representing ( $-\partial,-\varepsilon$ ), writers have felt the same difficulty as Mr. Murray in his historical orthography (ib. pp. 133, 134): and have generally adopted his contrivance of writing $-a$ when final (though many fall into -er. which leads, however, to a suspicion of a trilled $r$, which is tainted with vulgarity), and -er- when before a consonant (when trilling would be out of the question). Of course in Scotland, where the sight of an $r$ in any position is the signal for trilling, this use of er was impossible. Its use in the United States, even in humouristic writing, is consequently proof of the very general existence of non-trilled $r$ among the English speakers of America.

## 4. Other Consonants.

D is changed to $t$ in hold n. holt W , which is not uncommon in England. It is alded after $n$ in drowned drowndid W, drownded H, gowns gownds W, as with us, but there is a more general tendency to omit it in this ease, as friend fren W, vagabond vagabone W , especially when $s$ follows, as friends freus W, husbands husbans W, understands understans W, reminds remines W, handsome hansom S (although handsome handsum S is also found, where the $d$ is probably erroneous), and even before other letters, as handbills hanbills W. There is a great tendency to change $d$ to $j$ under the influence of a full $i$ unaccented but followed by a vowel, as Indian Ingen D, Injin D IF, Injun W, and audience awjince $W$, grandeur granjur W, immediate immejit W , induce injuce injooce W, medium mejium W, produce projuce W, soldiers sojers W, tremendous tremenjious tremenjis W.
H. This much-abosed letter in England seems to escape in America. Of course ostensibly hosstensibly W is a mere grotesque to recall hoss, the word not being popular. The enclitic here, in this here, becn here, etc., suffers various changes, as: h'yur 'yar 'yer yere II, which however are attributed to the strong action of the (ia) or (ia') pronunciation of the -ere portion. Even Sir John IJerschel (Sound, art. 361 , in Encyc. Metr.) makics " young ; yearn;
hear, here" consist of the rowel in "peep, leave, believe, sieben (Germ.), coquille (Fr.)," "succeeded more or less rapidly" by the rowel in "spurt, assert, dirt, virtue, dove, double, blool," entirely omitting the $h$. This will be found frequent dialectally, and earth yearth II is quite similar.

L for $r$ in frustrated flostratid W is grotesque, but the omission of $l$ in only on'y $\mathbf{H}$ is quite common.

M is omitted in rheunatism rheumatiz H , which is quite familiar in England.
$\hat{N}$ becomes exceptionally (q) in some words, as captains captings W, cushions cushings H , garden garding W , weapons weppings H , but more commonly -ng becomes $-n$; in fact this is the rule for the participial and gerundial -ing and the word thing in composition, as amazing amasin S, eapering caperen D, everlasting everlastin' S , everything evrythin D , meeting meetin S , nothing nothin D S W, pudding pudden D, seizing ceasin W, something suthin W H , toiling toilin W , etc., etc.

PH . The change to $p$ in nymph nimp W is probably purely grotesque.

QU becomes $c, k$, frequently in equalled ekalled W , and occasionally in quotation cotashun W.

SK is transposed, or rather the original $c s$ is preserved in ask ax S .

T is onitted when final after $c$, in acts ax W, conflicts conflicks W, contact contack W, districts districks W, facts fax W , intellect intelleck W , just so jes so W, just jess H, object objeck W, perfect perfeck W, seet seck W, and after $p$ in attempt attemp W , crept crep' $\mathbf{H}$, also in don't preceding $n$, as don't know dunno W , and probably also before other consonants. On the other hand, it is added in once onct W,
sudden n . suddent II , and assimilated in let go leggo W, to which category probably belongs partner pardner II. In surtout surtoot W the added $t$ is orthographical; educated Americans also pronouncing the final $t$ in trait.

TH remains $d$ in further furder W, and is omitted in clothes close W, but that there that ar' II is the English that cre, and it is doubtful whether this should be reckoned as an omitted $t h$.

V is written $w$ in the first syllable of conviviality conwiviality W, shewing that some such change would be appreciated, $\left(1067, d .1220, d^{\prime}\right)$, but this is the only instance I bave noted.

W is, as often, omitted in inwards inards W.

X becomes $z$ by the omission of preceding syllable in exactly zactly W , where the $t$ also ought to be omitted.

The above examples, though very incomplete, will serve to give some notion of the prevailing illiterate or Yankee pronunciations in America. Those arising from negro influence have been kept out of view. But they form a remarkable instance of linguistic break down, and deserve careful study. For examples see Da Njoe Testament io wi Masra en Helpiman Jesus Kristus, or New Testament in the Negro English of Surinam, to be had of the British and Foreigu Bible Society, price 2s.6d.; also Proeve eener Inandleiding om het Neger-Engelsch, zoo als hetzelve over het algemeen binnen de Kolonie Suriname gesproken wordt, door A. Helmig val der Vegt, Amsterdam, 1844, p. 56, and Slave Songs of the United States, New York, 1871, introduction by W. F. Allen, pp. xxiv-xxsvi. To which Addison Van Name ( $1155, c^{\prime}$ ) adds Wullschlägel's Neger-englisches, Wörterbuch, Löbau, 1850.

## Irisif Pronunciation of English.

Although vast numbers of the Irish who speak English are uneducated, jet the English language is not of native growth in Ireland. There are still several parts of Ireland where English is not spoken. Hence an account of the Irish pronunciation of English can be better classed as educated than as natural. But there is a still stronger reason for placing it next to the American. They are both examples of an emigrated language of nearly the same date. If we disregard the English settlers in Forth and Bargy in the xir th century, to be considered hereafter, the English language in Ireland may be considered to date in the north from the settlement of Ulster by James I. in 1611, and generally from the events
which followed Cromwell's incursion in 1649. The fist English settlements on the Bay of Massachusetts date from 1628. The language in both cases therefore belongs to the xvir th century. An inspection of the preeeding and following lists compared with the accounts of the pronunciation of that period already given, will shew the correetness of the estimate already formed for these cases (p. 20) as examples of persistent mother-tongue in emigrants.

The general xyir th century character is most strongly marked in Ireland by the retention of the pronunciation of long $e$, in the state which had been reached in the xvir th eentury,-those words that had then changed long $e$ into (ii), mostly marked by the orthography ee, remaining as long (ii), and those that had not yet changed their (ee), mostly marked by the spelling ea, remaining as (ee) or (ee). This character-is so marked and prevalent among all but the liigher edueated classes in Ireland, among whom the present English usage is not a century old, ( $\left.1050, a^{\prime}\right)$, that most persons seem to regard it as one of the marks of Irish "brogue," whereas it is pure xvir th century English fossilized by emigration, and, as we shall see, is more or less persistent among our own dialects. But there are two distinct styles of English spoken in Ireland, that in the Northern part due to the mainly Scotch settlement of Ulster, and that elsewhere spoken.

After Mr. Murray had published his book on the Dialeets of the South of Scetland, so frequently referred to (1085, e), Mr. W. H. Patterson, of Strandtown, Belfast, sent him a copy of a pamphlet called: "The Proxineialisms of Belfast and the Surrounding Districts pointed out and corrected, by David Patterson, industrial teacher of the blind at the Ulster Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind, and a resident of Belfast for the last forty years, Belfast, 1860." Mr. Murray having shewn me this pamphlet, and pointed out the numerous Scotticisms which it contained, 1 requested him to mark all the words which bore a Scotch character. At the same time, to cheek the North by the South, I requested Mr. T. M. Healy, who had lived the first 18 out of the 20 years of his life in Cork, where he was born, to mark such words as were pronounced in the same way in Cork as at Belfast, and where there were differences to point them out. Both gentlemen having obligingly complied with my request, I have been enabled to compile the following lists, which, although leaving very much to be desired, give a fuller acoount of Irish peculiarities than any I can refer to elsewhere.

To obtain further information, I addressed a series of questions to Mr. W. H. Patterson, who sent the pamphlet, and to its author, Mr. D. Patterson, who is himself blind, and is personally unknown to the other, and also to the Rev. Jas. Graves, of Inisnag Rectory, near Stoneyford, Kilkenny, honorary seeretary of the Kilkenny Arehaeological Society, all of whom, as well as Mr. Murray and Mr. Healy, most kindly and readily assisted me, and from them I have gathered the following information.

The pronunciation of Belfast decidedly differs from that of the
greater part of Ireland, but extends pretty uniformly over the Northern and Eastern parts (about two-thirds) of Ulster. Though Scotch, it is not so much so as the Eastern parts of Down and Antrim. For instance (says Mr. W. H. P.), a farmer living in east of County Down will have many Scotch words in his speceh and a rery Scotch accent, but will be at once distinguishable from the Scottish landstewards and gardeners who come over. He will say: "Hae ye got ony guid shearin hewks?" and his children will play at: "Ngeery, ngany, ngick, ngack, which han will ye tak, the right or the wrang, I'll beguile ye if I can." A child was heard to cry: "Qut cloddin stanes at them kye!" Here Qut is quit, give over (kwat). A farmer's wife called some people to "see Billy biggin," i.e. bailding a corn stack; a wild bee's nest is a bee's bilie (Co. Down) ; missly is lonely, solitary (Belfast; Mr. Murray says Jamieson gives it for Roxburghshire, but he never heard it, it is ags. misalice), brulliment disturbance (Glenarn, Co. Antrim), glam grasp or sudden clutch (Belfast), holie to make a hole (Sc. howk), hence the hoques a game played with peeries pegtops, which are to hoque one another.

All my authorities state that the English from different parts of Ireland is decidedly different, but they are not prepared to say how it is different. It is evident that there is a considerable field for investigation here. The R is strongly trilled. There is an Irish $r$ which seems to occupy the whole tongue in its trill, and may hence be written ( $r$ ), but I have not investigated it. The $H$ is always pronounced, except in French words, and the WH is, says Mr. Murray, as in Scotland, varying between (wh, kwh). The peculiar dental T, D, before R, are considered under D, in the Alphabetical arrangement of the Consonants, No. 3, below.

My inquiries as to the "brogue" have not resulted in any very satisfactory information. It seems to me that we must study the Irish habits of Celtic pronunciation, and the de-formation of English by persons naturally speaking Celtic, before we can form a proper judgment on the brogue. Thus Mr. Murray, from his own Irish expericnce, defines the brogue as speaking English with Celtic habits of utterance-1) in the pronunciation of consonants, as the rolling $r(, r)$, the post-aspiration ( $p \Pi l \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{br}$ ), the dental or bi-dental (..t..d ${ }^{d}$ ) before this ( ${ }_{n} r$ ), and excessive palatalisation of ( $l, n, k, g$ ) ; 2) in the rowels (i) for (i), (0) for (o, a), (ee) for (ii), all three of which appear doubtful to me, as the last seems certainly xrir th century English; and 3) most of all in the intonation, which appears full of violent ups and downs, or rather precipices and chasms of force and pitch, almost disguising the sound to English ears. In this work I have generally omitted to dwell on intonation, because, at all times extremely difficult to eatch and describe in living speceh, it was hopeless to recover it in the past. But in local speceh intonation is very characteristic, and for Scotch and Irish it is generally unmistakable, although so difficult to describe. Mr. Graves says Cork and Killarney are marked by a peculiar accent on the ultimate syllable, a high key, and a brogue that is never lost. Even the gentry partake of this peculiarity. This brogue, when
once heard, can never be forgotten. Kilkenny, says Mr. Graves, has a peculiar drawling brogue, which he endeavours to write thus: Calf eaalf, Margaret Maargaret, clean elaane, height hoith, potatoes pyaatees, wheat whate, father faather, door dure, where $a a$ is French $a$, except when answering to ea. Mr. Graves also remarks that "in the ballads of the peasantry the consonants at the ends of lines are ignored, it is enough if the rowels jingle together," and adds that this is also the rule of Irish poetry. That is to say, the Irish are still content with assonances, which had disappeared from English poetry before the immigration. In some modern street ballads of Belfast, sent me by Mr. W. H. Patterson, I find: name vain, shame train;-found known, surprise sight, found down, hands land;-ere grief, time line ;-tin limb, mixed brieks, line pantomime;-Kneel field;-alone home, eyes high, strong on ;chalk walked, malt walked, shoek walked, hot elock, stop walked, talk walked, knocked walked (here every stanza ended with 'walked,' and the rhymester was ecidently hard up);-remember surrender, perished eherish ;-march smash, toast force ;-cared bed; -sobbed Lord, joy smiles while;-found town. But by far the greater number of rhymes are perfect, although sometimes the authors seem to hare had no rhymes at all "conramient," as when they condescend to: comrade poor Pat, morning darling, explain line, spring strung, kneeled side. It is very seldom that an Irish pronunciation comes in as: door sure, scream same.

Mr. Graves gives the following as "a fair specimen of the Kilkenny English of the last generation, i.e. as spoken by the old people," and adds that national school education is fast destroying these peculiarities; he says also that this dialect has evidently been influenced by an early English colonisation, and that the speakers use rery good English, not clipping their words much. The bracketed explanations are his own.
"Shure yer 'Oner never seen so clane [clear-complexioned] a boy, [unmarried man,] or likely [handsome] a colleen [girl] as them two that was marrid the week afore Iast.-Is it what the dacent couple had to depind [ the $i$ sounded like Italian $i$ ] on for their livin, yer oner is axin? Sorra a haporth but God's goodness, and the quarter of pyates [pronounced as two syllables, pya-tes, a quarter of an acre of potatoes] the boy sot last Easther.-Is it after the woman [the speaker's wife] yer Riverence is axin? Och she's bad intirely with the faver, and the

Most words are here in received spelling, some occasionally in her. Glory be to God! an sorra an egg or a dhrop of milk meself has to give the erathers, becase the fox, the thief of the world, tuck the hins, an the cow's run dhry with the red mmrrin, not a dhrop inthered thir lips since yistherday but could wather.Yer Riverence is a dacent gintleman, and won't sce a poor craathur in want uv a bit to aate. The baaste perished [died] on me last week, and sorra a sup of milk I have for the childhre. It's kind faather [proving yourself kin to your father] for yer oner to be good to the poor."
both receired and characteristic spelling; probably not one was altogether in received pronunciation.

With regard to the letter $a$, I have been told that the first letters of the alphabet are called (ææ, bee, see, deee), and that barrel is (baaril), and so on. But nothing of this is shewn in the above or in the following orthography.

In re-arranging Mr. D. Patterson's words, the ordinary spelling is put in italies, his phonetic spelling follows in roman letters, with 13 annexed, and C if this is used in Cork, S if in Scotch, WS in West and SS in South Scotch, and SE in Scoteh English. Sometimes the word is re-spelled or only a single letter is added to shew the differences. When C is put after the usual spelling, it shews that at Cork the receised, or what is there considered as the received, pronunciation is used. Sometimes this plan is specially broken through for brevity, as explained on each occasion.
Mr. D. Patterson seems to use ee, ai, ah, $a u, o a, o o$, in closed syllables for (ii, ee, aa, AA, oo, au), and $i, e, a, o, u$, for ( $i, \mathrm{e}, \mathfrak{e}, 0,0$ ), but ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{a}$ ) may be meant, and he seems to have no sign for ( $u$ ). In open syllables, or with a final $e$ mute, ( $a, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o}, 1 \mathrm{l}$ ) seem to be (ee, ii, ái éí, oo, iú), and ou is (áu). The two sonnds (ái, éi) will be spoken of under $i$ long.

## 1. Miscellaneous.

To begin with a fer instances which cannot be easily classed under letters. We have not unknown deformations of words in colrmn colyum B C SE, and tremendous tthremen-dyay-iss B , thremendus C, which appears rather as (trime ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ndzh}$ hs) in English, but massacre nuassacrec B , massacrai C , is very pectuliar. The three foilowing are usual enough in England: coroner crowner B, C or corner, courtesy curtchy B C, poem pome B C SE, (poiem) S, but process C , pross B , seems to be simply (proses) abridged, and portmantenu portmantyea B, where yen $=(\mathrm{se})$, or portmanehu C, is a mere local mispronunciation in B, where 'portmankai' has also been heard. Initial syllables are lost in apprentice C , prentice B S, enlist list B S C , and perhaps a final $t$ in lancet lance BS S , which looks, however, more like a different usage.
Accent is thrown back, as regards received pronunciation, in brigadier brig'adier B, caralier cav'alier B, engincer en'gineer B, fusilier fu'silier B, mankinul man'kine 13 C , and S for accent, parishioner parishioner B C; and forward in contrary contra'ry B S C, in B and $\mathcal{C}$ we onght certainly to have tth, desultory de-ulitory B , desul'thory C, discipline discip'line B S C, disciplined discip'led B , disputable dispu'table 1BC, disputant dispu'tant B,
district C , district' B , exemplary exem'plary B S C, industry indus'try B S, indus'thry C , as it certainly should be in B, inventory inven'tory BS, inven'tthory C, lamentable lamentable B S C, maintenance maintai'nance B C, (menti'nons) S, subaltern subal'tern B.

## 2. Vouels.

A is sometimes but rarely broadened into $(\mathrm{AA}, 0)$, as cabal C , cabaul $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(a)$, canal C , canaul $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(a)$, tassel torsel BC , $\mathrm{S}(a)$. The general tendency is towards thinness, which takes several degrecs. Thus, alderman C , alderman B , that is, with (æl) not (AAl), agrees with the retention of (æ) after $w$, which goes through the Belfast pronunciation, answering to S or SE (a), but, except in the one word wasp wasp $=$ (wæsp) B C, seems to be unknown in C, where the received pronunciation prevails, the examples being: qualify, quality, quantity, quarrel, quarry, squable, squad, squander, swab, swaddle, swallow, seamp, swan, swap, searm, swarthy, wadding. waddle, wallet, wallow, want, war, ward, warn, wart, warble, warm, warp, warrior, wash, watch, wattle, and what.

The short $a$ seems to be lengthened to (ce) in ration rashin B C , nag C , naig B S, and falls quite into short (e, E) in apparel apperrel B C, bandy C , bendy B , branch C , brench B , (brensh) S, calico C, kclligo B, cartridge
ketthridge B, or katthrij C, damsel C, demsel, $\mathrm{S}(\epsilon)$, cxamine C , exemine B , example C, exemple B, January C, Jenuary B, máam C, mem B, (macm mem) S', mangle C, mengle B, slant C , slent B , (sklænt) S , reach (i) in hang C , hing B S ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}}$ ), many C, miuny B, has C , his B, have C, hiv B.

A short often sounds as $e$ short in almost any word, but in Belfast this pronunciation is confined to words in which $a$ is preceded by ( $k, g$ ), or followed by ( $k, g, q$ ). What shade of short $e$ this may be is not known; possibly (e), but Mr. Murray suggests that it may be only a too narrow pronunciation of (æ), as a rebound from Seoteh ( $a$, á), and doubts whether a Southern Englishman would feel it too narrow. In Cork nothing of the kind is known. The following are sume of the examples: bag beg, canncl kennel, cant kent, carry kerry, cattle kettle, cavcrn kevern, drags dregs, fang feng, gabble gebble, galley gelley, gas guess, hack heek, hag heg, in fact in fect, knack neek, lag leg, pack peek, pang peng, plank plenk, rack reek, rank renk.

CAR-GAR- are usually kyar- gyarin Belfast, but sometimes kare- gare-. The first is just known in Cork. Neither are known in South Scoteh.

In was C , wuz $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ occ., we have probably an oceasional B use, and vacation C , vocation B , is no doubt mere confusion. Unaceented $\mathbf{A}$ is perhaps exceptionally treated in America Americay B C, and 'Meriky C.

A long seems to be in Ireland naturally (w), but much further examination is here necessary. D. Patterson notes that -ar is often called (-eer), possibly (-æær), and that when following $k$ a $y$ is introduced, as kyar, skyar, for car, scar. This and the long -are must in general be passed over, to note char C, char B SE, farm C, form B, dare dar B S C, and acom C, ahcorn B S, panorama panoramma B S C, ruther C , rether $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ (rce).

AE is noted as spae C, spae B, but the meaning of the pronunciation is not obvious.

AI. Only again C, again B SE, against C , against B SE , said C , said B SE, are noticed.

AU is exceptionally pronounced in assault C , assult B , auger C , ogre B , jaundice jendiez B , jaundis C . The regular sound is marked as $a$, but whether this means (x) or (ææ) or (aa)
is not noted. The C is as received, the S has (aa, aa) always, and the English has (aA), hence I only give B in brawd bral, claw ela, crawl cral, fazon fan, flaw fla, gnaw na, hawthorn hathorn, jaw ja, gnaw na, law la, paw pa, saw sa, sprawl spral, tawny tanny.

E short is apparently lengthened in B , and not in C , in bet C , bait B, led C, laid B, precious C, prayshayis B, shed C, shade B. It is occasionally deepened to (æ) as in desk C, dask B, (dæsk) S, grenadier grannidier B S C, wren ran B WS C, wretel C, ratch B, S (w'r), wrestle rassel B WS C ; but its general tendeney is to sharpen into (i), as in bench biuch B C, lesom bizzim B, (ba•zom) S, bless C, bliss B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), brethren C, brithren B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{l}}$ ), cherry C, chirry B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), chest C , chist D , oce. C, (kelst) S, clevcr C, clivver B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), crevice C. erivvis B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), devil divvil B C. S ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}$ ), engine injine B C, S $\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}\right)$, ever C, ivyer B, S ( $\left.\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}}\right)$, every C, irvery $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{1}}\right)$, jerk C , jirk B , jet C , jit B, S ( $e^{1}$ ), Nernel C, kirnel B, merry C, mirry B, S (e ${ }^{1}$ ), never C, nivver D , $\mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}\right)$, next nixt $\mathrm{B} C, \mathrm{~S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}\right)$, premises primmises B C, red C, rid B, S ( $e^{1}$ ), shettie shittie $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{1}}\right)$, speckled C , sprickled B S, together C, togither B, $\mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}\right)$, twonty twinti B C, whether C, whither B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{1}}$ ), wrench wrinch B C, yes yis B, yis yes C, ( $\mathrm{Je}^{1} \mathrm{~s}$ ) S, yesterday yisttherday B C, S (ye's), yet yit B C, S (e ${ }^{\mathrm{l}}$ ), and in senna C, seeni B, (se'ni) S, it seems to be even lengthened into (ii). Although the tendency does not seem to have always reached C in these cases, it is widely diffused, and the above list is far from containing all the instances that might be given.

E long is often (ce) or (ec), where it was so in the xvir th century, as in decent daicent B C, equal aiquil B C , extreme exthraim B C, female faimil B , faimail C , fever favour B , fayvŭr U , frequent fraiquent B C, immediately immaidyently B, immaidjutly C, scheme skain B C, secret saicret B C, tedious taidious B C. The B short pronunciation in hero herro B, hairo C, does not extend to C. Iu those words where it was spelled or might be spelled $e$ e, the (ii) sound had already prevailed by the xvirth century, but beestings beestins B, baystins baystees C , queer quair B C, are partial exceptions. The pronunciations were wur B, wor C, threepence thruppence B SE, thrippence C, arise otherwise. But where

EA was introduced in the xvith century, we know that the sound (ee, ee) remained in the xvir th, and hence we are not surprised at finding it almost uniformly so pronounced in Ireland. The remarkable point is that this pronunciation occurs in Belfast also, whereas it has nearly disappeared from the Scotch, whence it was derived. That it really existed there once, appears by some few remains. Thus reason is now in SS (ri' $z^{\prime}$ 'n), but in the common phrase reason or none, used adverbially, they still say (rez'narni'n). Mr. Murray (in a private letter) says that there are many similar facts which lead him to suppose that the SS ( $i^{\prime}$ ) in the xvi th century was still (E) or ( $x$ ), and that it travelled through ( $e_{1}, e^{1}$ ) to ( $e^{1}, i^{\prime}$ ). In examining the words in EA, it is hence convenient to divide them into groups.

1) Those words in ea now (ee) or (ee) both in B and C, but not in S, these are: bead baid, beagle baigle, beak bake, beam bame, bean bane, beast baste, beat bait, bleach blaich, breach braich, cease saice, cheap chaip, cheat chait, clean clain, creak craik, cream craim, crease craice, ereature craitthir B, craitthur C, deacon daikin, deal dale, dean dave, eaeh aitch, eager aiger, cagle aigle, ease aize, east aist, cat ate, feasible faizible, feast faist, feat fate, flea flay, freak fraik, grease n. grace, v. graze, heal hale, heathen haithen, key kay, lead lade, leaf laif, league laig, leal lake, lean lane, lease lace, least laist, leave lave, meal male, mean mane, measles maizels, meat mate, pea pay, peace pace, peal pale, please plays, preach praich, reach raich, real rail, reap rape, rear rair, reason raisin, repeat repait, sea say, seal sale, seam same, seat sait, sheaf shaif, sheath shaith, sneak snake, speak spake, steal stale, streak stthraik, stream stthraim, tea tay, teaeh taich, treaele tthraicle, treason thraizin, treat thrait, veal vale, wean wane, weave wave, wheat whait, wreak rake.
2) Words in ea having the (ee, ee) sound in S, as well as B and C, breathe braithe, endeavour endaiver, neat nait, woak wake.
3) Words in ear having (aa) or ( $x x$ ) in 13 , and the regular ( $\partial \partial$ ) or (er) in C, dearth darth B, S (x), earth C, arth B, S (x), heard C, hard B, S (x), learn larn B C, S (x), search C, sarch B, S ( $x$ ).
4) Words in $e a$ having ( $e, \mathrm{E}$ ) in both B and C, leap lep, meadow medda.
5) Other words in ea, mostly treated differently in B and C, beard baird B, deaf deef B S, deef daif def C, deafen deeve B S, diffen C, malleable mallible B S C, measure C, mizhir B, S ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}}$ ), peasant C , payzant B , pheasant C , fayzant B , ready C, riddy $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{e}^{1}\right)$, squeamish squammish B , squaimish C , sweat C, swait B, threat C, thrait B, treaeherous thraicheriss B , tthrecherüs C, weapon C, waypin B.

EI is not sufficiently excmplified, but the xvir the century pronunciation appears to be the rule, either aither $\mathbf{B}$ C, leisure laizhir B, laizhur C. inveigle invaigle B C, seize saize B C. Mr. Healy thinks that the $e i$ is not so broadly pronounced as ea, but I have not been able to determine whether they differ as (ee, ee).

EW. The few cases given are quite exceptional, chew chow B S, chau C, skewer skivver B C, Matthew Matha B C.

ER is almost universally written ar in Mr. D. Patterson's orthography. Whether that means (aar, ar) or (ær) I do not know. The Scotch has generally (ær) in such words. B and C sometimes agree, and also often differ. The words given are as follows: certain sartin B C, S (ie), elergy clargy B C, S $(æ)$, commercial C, commarcial B, concern consarn $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ (e), convert convart B O, S (æ), desert desart B C, S (x), deserve C , desarve $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x})$, determine C, detarmine B, S (x), divert divart B $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{S}(x)$, errand arran B , errend C , eternal C, etarnal B, S (x), ferrule C, farrel B, S ( $x$ ), Hereules Harklis B, infernal C , infarnal $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(\mathfrak{x})$, merehant C, marchant B, Mereury Markery B, merey C , marcy $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(\mathfrak{\text { e }}$, nerve C , narve $13, \mathrm{~S}(æ)$, pereh C , parch B , perjury C , parjury $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}(æ)$, perpendieular C , parpendicular B , person C , parson $B, S(x)$, serge $C$, sarge $B, S(x)$, sermon C, sarmin B, S (x), serpent sarpint $\mathrm{B} C, \mathrm{~S}(x)$, serve C , sarve B , $\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x})$, stern starn B, S (x), terrible C, tarrible B, S (æ), terrier tarrier B C, (tærier) S , vermin varmiu $\mathrm{B} C, \mathrm{~S}(x)$, verse C , varse B .

I short when written ee by Mr. D. Patterson represents the Scoteh short (i), and does not reach to C : brick C , breek B, delieious C, dilecshayis B S, giggle C, greegle B S (i) idiot cedyet B S, aijut C, malieious C, mileeshayis

B S, militia C, mileeshy B. suivel C, sneevel B , ridiculous rideekilis B S (i), mdikilis C, wick C, week B, (wik) S. Even the changes of $i$ into ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{E}$ ) in miracle merricle B C, (me $\left.{ }^{1} \mathrm{r}^{\prime} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}\right) \mathrm{S}$, milt melt B C, (me'lt) S, rid O, red B, (re ${ }^{1}$ d) S, which is only partially C, and into ( $\partial$, a) in brittle C, bruckle B S, whip C, whup B S, are good Scotch. In ruffian rutin B C the $i$ seems merely a mark of the indistinct final syllable, as used so much by Buchanan, see example on p. 1053.

I long is exceptionally pronounced (ee, ce) in diameter C , dayameter B , fatigue fitaig B , fataig C , intrigue intthraig B C, lilac C, laylock B S, occ. C , quiet quate B Ws , quite C , of which futigue, intrigue are remarkable, since oblige C , obledge B , and obleedge C, does not follow suit. Notwithstanding the usual impeachment that Irish people say oi naturally, I am led to suppose that giant joyant B C, riot royet B , riit C , are also exceptional.

In Belfast there appear to be two regular sounds of long $i$, corresponding to the Scotch sounds, see § 2, No. 10 below, and similarly distributed, but not always affecting the same words, nor, as far as I can discover, pronounced exactly in the same manner. According to Mr. D. Patterson, the first sound

$$
\mathrm{B} \text { (ái) and } \mathrm{S}(a \dot{i}) \text {. }
$$

$I$ was hurt
My native country I'll disown
The die is cast
He will dye it red
He dyed his hair
He was dyeing it first
He pried into the secrets of all They thed Rose fast
That gold is mine
This distinction is not appreciated by Mr. W. H. P'atterson, who hears in Belfast, $a^{\prime}$ 'm goin to Bengor, a wouldn't if a was you, and thinks that eye is called exactly (ái). But he adds, " a Cork man would say, oi've hurt mee oi." This Mr. Healy, heing a Cork man, repudiates. He knows in general only one pronunciation of long $i$, which he considers to be (éi), and, after noticing the habitual pronunciation of by, my, as (bi, mi), adds. "Some of them also say moi for $m y$, but these are very few; in fact, that word and noine for nine are the only ones I can speak of as having heard personally of the change of i into oi." He had forgotten giant joyant, which he had already acknowledged. Rev. Jas. Graves "never remarked any
is (ai), and the second (éi) or (E'i), or (éei) with the first element slightly lengthened. The first occurs in almost all words where long $i$ precedes $r, v$, $z, t h$, and in a few where $y, y e, i e$, are final.

The following words are said to have (aii) and in Scotch (ai), and hence are both B and S: alive arrive blithe buy by client comnive contrive cry deny deprive derive descry despise dive dry dye expire fie five fry hive my pie ply prior prize pry revise revive rye scythe shy sire size sly spy sty surmise thy tie tithe try vie wry.
The following six have (ái) in B , and (ai) in SE, but not in vernacular S: byre desire dire fire hire tire.

The following two have (ái) in B and (ii) in S : briar, friar.

Other cases have the second or (éi) sound in B, and generally also in S, but the following eight have (éi) in B and (ai) in S : choir idol idolize iron piracy pirate quire squire.

This double sound of long $i$, which is not in received English (but see Granville Sharpe, above p. $1053, c^{\prime}$ ), is very puzzling to an Englishman. Mr. D. Patterson gives the following seutences to illustrate the two sounds in B. The S distribution of the sounds does not always agree with the Irish.

> B (éi).

His eye was hurt-S (él)
I will my native isle disown-S (ei)
They due at last
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\begin{array}{l}\text { He will die in bed } \\ \mathrm{He} \text { died in despair }\end{array}\end{array}\right\}-\mathrm{SE}(a$ ái), S (ii, éi)
He was dying of thirst
His pride was the cause of his fall-S (ei)
The tide rose fast-s (éi)
That is a gold mine-s (éi)
difference [between $I$ and eye] in the southern parts of Ireland," but adds, "eye is pronounced ee in the north." However, he writes height hoit. Now Sheridan and Knowles, both Irishmen, make the English sound of long $\bar{i}=$ ( $\left.A^{\prime} i\right)$, see ( $108, c$ ), and only differing from oy, made (as'i). by the length of the first element. Now what caused this, and what makes English nuvelists write poi for the Irish sound of pie? I have had very little opportuuity of observing genuine peasant lrish. But I am inclined to think that the effect is produced by 'gutturaiising' ( $1107, c$ ), whereby the lower part of the pharynx being widened more than the upper. an effect is produced similar to the fourth degree of rounding (1114, $d^{\prime}$ ),
so that the sound (a'i) becomes ( $\partial_{2}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ) or very nearly ( $0^{\prime 4} \mathrm{i}$ ), see ( $1100, d^{\prime}$ ). At any rate, this produces the nearest approach to the effect I have noticed. Of course any such change would be entirely repudiated by the speaker. The following are a few of the words which take (éi, éi) in Belfast: eye, idle, ice, Irish, pipe, pile, pike, pint, spite, spider, spice, bible, bitc, bile, bind, fife, fight, fine, find, vice, vile, vine, wipe, wife, wise, wile, wire, wind, twice, swine, white, whine, quiet, tight, tide, tile, time, sigh, sight, side, silent, sign, shine, child, chime, high, lie, liar, life, light, like, lime, line, oblige, fly, flight, slight, slide, slice, glide, ripe, right, wright, write, ride, rice, rhyme, bribe, bright, bridal, brine, fright, Friday, thrive, tripe, trice, stripe, strife, drive, gripe, kite, kind, guide, guile, might, mice, miser, mild, smite, nigh, night, knight, knife, nice, snipe, and their eompounds. Of these oblige had been previously given as 'obledge,' so that probably both pronunciations occur, but the present is the one considered by Mr. D. P. to be 'correct.' "When T precedes another vowel," says Mr. Healy, "the $\bar{\imath}$ only is leard, as Brian brine, lion line, diamond dimond, crying crine."

0 short seems to be made ( 00 ) or ( $0^{\prime}$ ) in cord cuard B C, (cúrd) S, sort soart B C, (súart) S.

In the following words, where the received dialect has ( $0, \pi$ ), we find ( 0 ) retained: constable constable B S C , govern C, govern B SE, hover liover B SE, none none B C SE, but one waun B SE, won C, nothing C, nothing B SE, oven C, oven B SE, but B and C shew different habits, and the contrary use of ( $0, \mathrm{a}$ ) for ( 0 ) seems confined to B in body buddy, for fur, hod hud, nor nur, or ur.
That the ( $u$ )-sound after (w) should become (e, a) is not strange, but Mr. Healy will not allow it in Cork. wolf C, wulf B, voman C, wumman B S, and even in the plural women C , wumen B WS.

The squeezing of ( 0 ) into ( $x$ ) is more common, but although I have heard of its existence in Cork, Mr. Healy allows an approach to it only in one instance. bobbun C, lablin B, bots C, batts B, chop C, chap B Ws, crop C, crap B, and oce. C. WS, dohbin C', dabbin B, hob C, hab B WS, hop C, hap B WS, job C, jab B, linab (1, nab 13, lobby C, labby B, loft C, laft B WS, mop C,
map B , off C , aff B WS, prop C , prap B, Rober't C, Rabert B, (Rab) S, shop C, sloap B WS, slop C, slap B WS, soft saft B WS, sauft sahft C, stop C, $\operatorname{stap}$ B WS, top C, tap B WS.

The further gradation to (i) appears in Donegal Dinnegal B, Dunnegal C, docs C , diz B S, worsted wistid P , wustid C, but is not universal. In B it seems fixed for -tion -shin $\mathrm{B}_{\text {, }}$ rather -shŏŏn, than -shĭn or -shŭn C. For -inn as indistinet (-mn), see Buchanan (1054). It is possible, therefore, that this may be an old Scottish tendency, retained in Belfast.

0 long, $O A, O E$, are generally the same as in the received dialect, but board boord B C, coarse coorse B S C, sloat slot B , are exceptions, though (slot) is the common technical word in England. Before $l$ there is the usual old change into an (o'u) diphthong, now very characteristic of Irish: boid boul B C, and bould C, bolt boult B, C gen., cold coul B, could C, colt coult B, C gen., hold houl B C, and hould C, jolt joult B, C gen., mole moul B, C gen., old oul B C, pole C, poul B, roll roul B C, scold scould B C, sold sowl B, sould C, told toul B C, and tould C, but gold goold B SS C. Exceptional changes oceur in osier oisier B , pony C, pouny B S, sucorc C, sure B, tobacco tobecky B, tobacky C; but phoenix fainix BC belongs rather to long $e$.

00, though generally remaining, eren in door door B C, floor floor B C, (flarr) S, becomes ( $\partial$, a) in many' words, but the usage varies, as hood C , hud B , look C, luck B WS, shook shuck B C WS, stood stud B C, took tuck B C WS, wood C. wud B S, wool C, wul B; but loose C , louse B S , which also is common in English dialects.

OI, OY. No examples given by Mr. D. P., but the usual (a'i) sound in boil, point, join, etc., is I believe conmon.

OU, OW, in the following has an ( $\sigma^{\prime} u$ ) sound, contrary to received usage: bowl bowl B S C, gouge gonge B C, pourC , pour $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}$ also and mire commonly, (puur) S, route rout B sishoulder showldther B C, soul sonl B C tour tour B S. On the contrary, the received (a'u) is (on) in dernur C, devarar B, and (un) in couch eonch B S, coursc coorse B S C, court cont B S C. crouch erooch BS, drought drooth BSC, pouch pooch B C, slouch slo weh B S.

This hecomes ( $0, a$ ) in could C , cud B, courier currier B s c', mourn murn

B S C, should C, shud B, would C, wud B , and (0) in nourish C , norrish B.
Final -ow becomes regularly indistinct $(-\partial)$ in B S C, as fellow fella, and -ough fares the same in borough C, borra B, thorough C, thorra B. But we find the farourite $-i$ in window windey B C, possibly etymologically founded.
U short is irregular in puppet C , pappet B, turpontinc torpentine B C, torpentoine C, supple soople B S C, and where the received pronunciation retains the old $(u)$, has adopted, but chiefly in B , the xuin th century ( $\theta$ a a ) in ambush C , ambush B SE , bull C , bull B SE, bullet C, bullet B SE, bulletin C , bulletin B SE, butlion C , bullion B SE, bullock C, bullock B SE, bully C, bully B SE, bulrush C, bulrush B SE, butwark C, bulwark B SE, bush C, bush B SE, bushel C, bushel B SE, bushy C. bushy B SE, cushion cushion B SE C, full C, full B SE, pudding C, puddiug B SE, pull C, pull B SE, (pa'u) SS, pullet C, pullet B SE, pulley C, pulley B SE, pulpit pulpit B C SE, (pu-pat) S, puss C, puss B SE, put C, put B, (pe't) S. There is the usual change to ( $i, e$ ) in bury C, birry B , just jist B , and jis C , (dzhe ${ }^{1} \mathrm{st}$ ) S , such sich B C, (se'k) S. For the prefix un. we find on- B C, sometimes ǒŏn- C, never un-, as unwell ouwell B C, etc.
U diphthongal, commonly called long $u$, becames (i) or (e), or (ə) when unaccented, as ague aigay B , aigee C , ( $\quad \cdot \cdot \mathrm{g} \partial) \mathrm{S}$, argue C , argay $\mathrm{B},(a \cdot \mathrm{rg} i) \mathrm{S}$ and C , education C , eddication B , impudent impident B C S, manufacture C, mannafect thir $\mathbf{B}$, value C , valyea S . Also we find the usual suite shoot B, and buoy boy B C.

## 3. Consonants.

$B$ is called (v) in marble marvel B C, S oce. B is omitted in Belfast and Seotch, but not in Cork between $m$ and syllabic $l$, as bramble C , brammil B , crumble crummil B, fumble C, fummil B S, gamble C, gammil B S. grumble C, grummil B S, jumble C, jummil B S, mumble C, mummil B S, ramble C, rammil B S, rumble rummil B S, scramble C, scrammil B S, stumble C, stummil B S, thimble C . thimmel B S , tumble C , tummil B S, and between $m$ and $c r$ in timber C , tinmer, and even in Cork also in cucumber cucummer B S C, where the initial cu- for the natural xvin th century bistorical cow- is curious.

C functioning as (s) becomes (sh), as $s$ often does, in spancel spenshil B S, spansil C ; guttapercha guttaperka B © is a mere error of ignorance.

D and T in connection with R reccive a peculiar dentality all over Ireland. This deritality is not noted in conjunction with any other letter but $R$, either immediately following, as in $d r-$ - $t r$-, or separated by an unaccented vowel, as -der, -ter, the $r$ being of course trilled. No notice is taken of the dentality of D, T, by Mr. D. Patterson in any other case, and he tells me that it does not otherwise occur in Belfast, but it is never omitted in these cases. Whether the word begins with the D , T or not, whether the D, T be preceded by S initially or by any long or short vowel, or any consonant in the accented syllable or not, whether the unaccented -er, -ar, etc., are followed by a vowel or another consonant, seems to make no difference. The dentality always occurs in relation to a following R , and not otherwise. No example is given of dentality being caused by preceding $r$ - which is curious in connection with the apparent non-dentality of Sanscrit R under the same circumstances. The old Forth and Bargy dialect seems to shew an old dental $t$, $d$, even under other circumstances, as will be discussed in Chap. XII. In England, as has been pointed out at length, $t, d$ are not generally dental (pp. 1095-6). We shall find that dental (,t, d) oecur frequently in English dialects, but always and only in connection with $r$, probably ( $r$ ), under precisely the same cireumstances as the Irish dental. We shall even find that in England phases or varieties of dialeet are distinguished by the presence and absence of this dentality. We have nothing in older English to lead us to a knowledge of the existence of dental ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ), and their distinction from coronal ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ). There is also no trace of it in Scoteh. It commences further south in Eugland, in Cumberland, Westmorland, Yorkslire, Lancashire, Peak of Derbyshire, etc. How did it get into Irish-English? It is believed to be Celtie, but I. am not sufficiently acquainted with Celtic usages, or the English customs of Seotch and Welsh Celts in speaking Engli-h, to form any opinion. Another question rises: is the Irish dentality the same as the Indian, French, and dialectal English ?

Mr. D. Patterson writes it $t t h$, $d t h$, and, in answer to my request that he would describe the action of the tongue in pronouncing it, wrote: "This vulgar pronunciatiou of $t$ and $d$ is caused by pressing the tip of the tongue against the teeth instead of the gums," shewing that his own ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) are gingival instead of coronal, and so far making his dentals the same as (.t, d). But be goes on to say: "The explodent $t$ is first sounded, but, on withdrawiug the tongue from the teeth, the sound of th as in thus ( $\mathrm{dh}_{\mathrm{h}}$ ) is unavoidably pronounced between the $t$ and the $r$." 'That is, his tthram, dthram $=$ (.tdh,ræm, ddh, ræm), which of course are quite possible, although it would thus be some what difficult to distinguish the first word from the second. The Rev. James Graves says: "The tongue is pressed firmly against the teeth aud retracted, when the peculiar sound above described is pronounced, and before the succeeding vowel is rocalised." Here the ( dh ) disappears, and we have (.træm, dræm) simply. Mr. W. H. Patterson says: "The tip and sides of the tongue are jambed tightly against the teeth and palate, by the muscular action of the tongue, assisted by the lower teeth, which are brought against it, and no sound issues till the tongue is remored, which is not done till the pressure of air from within is considerable (at least as compared with the amount of pressure used in saying thin or then). 1 think that this 'coarse and thickened pronunciation' owes its existence to the important part played by the lower teeth, which keep the tongue from moving. In fact the word cannot issue till the tongue is drawn backwards and downwards out of the gap between the upper and lower teeth which it had been closing." It was to meet this case that I introduced the bideutal (. t , . d) on (1120, b). If Mr. W. H. $P^{\prime}$. is correct, therefore, the sound is (ntræm, „d,ræm). Mr. Murray, who has been in Ulster, and knows the Westmorland (.tr, dre , says: "I do not at all identify the $t$ th of Ireland with the North of England dental. To my remembrance it was something distinct, with more (th) or aspiration aud more moisture in it - a spluttering effect in perfervid oratory, as though the force of the explosion were carrying out the saliva with it. The northern English has a much finer [more delicate]
and more simple-tonely effect." This would make the effect nearly (. $\mathrm{t}_{1} \mathrm{~h}_{3} \mathbf{r}^{-}$-, dir, r-), the windrush ( p ) and the jerk (H) carrying some saliva with them. Mr. Healy, in answer to the question: "is $t$ or $d$ pronounced dentally before $r$ ?" says: "Always, and to my Irish cars it would be a great improvement if they adopted or re-adopted it in England for some words. There cannot be a question as to the superior expressiveness of Tthrash! Murdther ! heard from an Irishman, and the feeble trash, murder, heard here!" (dated Newcastle-on-Tyne). It might be possible to amalgamate Mr. W. H. P.'s and Mr. M.'s suggestions, and write (, th h rem, dH, rem). But merely English readers would be led to nearly the right sound, most probably, by en.deavouring to say (tth praem, ddhurem). The following examples are selected from a long list, to shew the varying circumstances under which this dentality or bi-dental postaspiration occurs. All are found both in B and C, unless otherwise marked.

Dthr-drain dthrain, draft dthraft, dram dthram, drill dthrill, droll dthroll, drop C , dthrap B , and occ. C , (drap) WS, drowned dthrownded, drunk dthrunk, foundry foundthry, hundred hundthert B , hŏŏndthert C .
-dther - spider spidther, powder powdther, seoundrel scoundthrel, blunder blundther, tender tendther B, tindther C, thunder thundther, murder murdther, border bordther.

Tthr-trade thrade, tract tthreck B, thrack C, treble tthreble, trifte tthrifle, trim thrim, trod throd, troop throop, trouble throuble, t,ousers throusers, truth thruth, trudge tthrudge, trytthry, paltry palthhry, sultry sulthry, sentry sentthry, country countthry, partridge patthridge.

Sthr-strange stthrange, straight stthraight, strawe stthro B, stthrau C. stretch C , stthraitch B , strive stthrive, strip stthrip, stroke stthroke, destroy destthroy, strong stthrong, struck stthruck.
-tther - matter matther, doctor doctthir B, doctthur C, rafter raftther, shelter shiltther B, sheltther C. winter winther, ehapter ehaptther, porter portther. Ulster Ulstther, muster mastther, sister sisther, battery batthery, basterd bastthard, Saturday Satthirday B, Satthurday C, lantern lanthern.

Miscellaneous - children chiltther,
udder eldther B, udher D, solder sother B, saudther C. ( $\mathrm{s} a \cdot \mathrm{~d} \partial \mathrm{r}$ )S, consider consither B, considther C, ladder leather B S, iadther C, bladder blether B S, bladther C, fodder fother B S, fodther C, splendour splendyour B, splendthur C , zearer C , neardther B . In some of these latter cases most probably th B is an error for $t t h$ or $d t h$.

D is omitted-
after R in gardencr garner B C, hardly harly B S C, lard C, lar B S;
after L in ehild chile B C, field C, feel B WS, held C, hell B WS, mould moul B C, seaffold skeffil B, skaffil C, wild wile B C, ccorld worl B C WS;
after N in and an B S C, band C, ban $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{N}$ and WS, behind C , behine B , bind C , bine B , (be I n$) \mathrm{S}$, blind bline B C, bound boun B C, (ban) S, end C, en B WS, find C, fine B, (feln) S , friend C , fren B WS, found foun B C, (fan) S, grand gran, B C, N and WS, grind C , grine B , ground C , groun B , (gran) S, hand C, han B N and WS, hound houn B C, kind C, kine B S, land C, lan B N and WS, lend C, len B WS, mind mine B S C, pound poun B S C, round roun B C, sand C, san B N and WS, send C, sen B WS, sound soun B S C, stand C, stan BN and WS, vagabond, vergabone $B \mathrm{~S}$, vaggabone C , wind C , win B .

Hence of course D also disappears between N and L, as in bundle C, bunnil B, eandle kenuel B, kendle C, chandler chanler B C, dandle dannil B, handle C, hannil B S, kindle C, kennel B S ( $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{l}}$ ) spindle C, spinnel B S, windlass wiulass B C.

The participial -ed becomes -it or $-t$, contrary to received usage, at least in erabbed crabbit B S C, "in the sense of 'cute, not sour', morose,' C, crooked crookit B S C, killed, kilt B WS C, nakcd nakit B S C, wieked wickit B C.

The following are exceptional forms: soldier soger B S C, common dialectally in England, necessity C, needcessity B S, which looks like an attempt to make necessity intelligible, but occurring in America ( $1226, b a$ ), may be an old form, although clearly erroneous etymologically, breadth brenth B, breth C, the last is not at all uncommon in England, especially among dressmakers.

F occasionally becomes voiced in B and S, but not in C apparently, as calf C, calve B S, staff C, stav R, (stav) S.

G in blackguard bleggayard B seems to be merely palatalised before (aa), as $k$
usually is in B. In drought dthrooth B C, the (th) represents the lost guttural, but it was only ( t ) in the xvin th and xvin th centuries.

K is not (as in received English) transposed in ask ex $\mathrm{B},(a \mathrm{ks}) \mathrm{S}$, ax C , and disappears in asked ast B C, which must be considered a form of (ækst), and not of (æskt). It seems also to disappear in lukewarm C, luewarm B S, which may also be heard in England.

L is very variously treated in a few words. Its replacement by $n$ in April Apron C, flannel flannen B S C, will be paralleled uuder N. In corporal C, corpolar B, we have almost a Spanish interchange of $l$ and $r$. In finch C flinch $\mathrm{B}, l$ is inserted, and in Walter Watther B, Wautther C, omitted, as of old. In sluice C, sloosh B, $l$ causes a $y$ sound to vanish, and in colemm colyum B SE, occ. C, to be inserted!
M in mushroom musheroon B C has gone back to its historical $n$. After L it appears to be always vocal: elm ellim B S, ellŭm C, helm hellim B, S occ., hellŭm C , realm rellim $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ occ., rellŭm C , whelin whellim $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ occ., whellŭm C , where, as usual, $i$ replaces the indistinct vowel.

N becomes $l$ in chimney chimley B S, or chimbly C , damson demsel B , (de'mbs'l) S , remnant remlet B , and $m$ in brine C, brime S C, ransack ramsack B C.

NG in participles and gerunds is regularly (n) in B S C, as cumning cunnin B S C, evening evenin BS C, gnawing gnawin B C, herring herrin B S C, sitting sittin B S C; in blacking blecknin B, S occ., blacknin C, there is an evident confusion with blaekening. In kingdom C , keendom B , it would appear that the vowel also is lengthened as in the old Forth and Bargy dialect. Before th it becomes $n$ in strength stthrenth B S C. length lenth B S C. In dangle C , dang'le B , and all similar words, C like E has ngg (qg), and S like B has ng (q) only, as in ang-er, bung-lc, fing-er, hung-er. jang-le, jinu-le, mang-le, mong-er, ling-er, long-er, ming-le, sing-le, strong-er, strang-le, wrang-le, young-er.

P becomes $b$ in baptism C, babtism B, and often in England, scrape scrabB, scrap C.

QU is $k$, as often in England, in B and C, in quoit, quorum, quote, quotient.

R is often transposed, from before to after, in afraia afeard B C, (fiird) S,
bristie C, birse B S, crib C, kerb B, grin C, girn B C, pretty purty B C; and from after to before in burst brust I3, bust C, curb C, crub B S, curd crud B S C, scurf, scroof B , scröŏf C, (scraf) S. It is also sometimes inserted after $p$, th, as in poker C, proker B, potatoe pratic B C, and also often pyaity, (ta $n \cdot$ to) S, thistle C, thristle B S. The prior rocalisation of $r$ occurs in February Fayberwary B, Febery C, proprietor properietor S, properietthor C, propriety properiety, B C, library liberary B S C, sobriety soberiety B C, umbrella umberella $B$ S C, none of them uncommon in England, where also curiosity curossity B C is well known.
$S$ is evidently mistakenly inserted in molest mislist B , mŭlest C , and omitted in corpse C, corp B S, but in sneeze C, neeze B S, the omission, and in quinsy squinnisy $B$ the insertion, is ancient. It is changed to (sh, zh), but chiefly in B , in blenderbuss blundtherbush B, blundtherbis C, flecee C , fleesh $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{S}$ oce., grease creesh B S, crees C, harass C , harrish B , mince C , minsh B S, rinse rensh B , rinsh C , rinzh S , utensil utenshil B S, utinsil C. On the contrary SHR evidently creates a difficulty, fonnd also in Scotch, and in Salopian, and $s r$ is used for it in B, not in C, in shrubsrub, shrine, shrewd, shrew, shrick, shrink, shrug, shrill, shirank, shred, shrivel, shroud, shrunk. Is not shrove C, seraff B, a mere blunder? Dictionary dicksinary $B$, dickshinary C , is old, and rubbish rubbitch B , occ. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, is known in English as (ra•bidzh).

T becomes $d$ in protestant proddisin B , proddistin C , reticule redicule B , (ra•dik'l) S, the latter very common as ridicule in England, when ladies' handbags were so called. $T$ is omtted in crept crep B C, empty C, empy B S, fidget C, fidge B S, hoist C, hoice B S, C occ., instant C , insant B, joist C , joice B, kept kep, B C, slept slep, B C, swept swep, B C, tompt C, temp B S. This would seem natural if it had not been added on in almost the same cases in attack attect B , attact C , once waunts BC , and wons-t C, twice twyste $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}$ occ., sudden suddent B C.

TH has its old form in throne trone C , and becomes $d$ in farthest C. fardest B , farthing fardin B , (fix rdin) S , fathom C, faddom B S, and though doe, C.

W is omitted in athwart athort B S.
Yappears as (dh) in yon C, thon (dhon) B S, a remarkable form, which admits of explanation, first on the theory of assimilation to this and that, being used for a second more distant that; on the theory of (dh) replacing (gh) from ags. geond, or as a mere orthographical mistake, $y$ as often standing for b , so that yon may have been in these the ags. pon, "(dhon) things," being a construction equivalent to " them things." Historical proofs are wanting, Mr. Murray takes the first view (Dial. of S. S. p. 186). It will be seen in § 2, No. 12, that the word yon is not very common in our dialects. The adverbial form yonder is more frequent.

Z is $s$ in lozenge lossenger B S , lozenger C.

Although it is, strictly speakiug, beyond the scope of this work, it seems advisable to supplement the abore account by a notice of some other Belfast peculiarities given in Mr. D. Patterson's book, and their relation to Scotch.

Past Tensc.-IIe began to sing, he sung well, he drunk water, he rid home. he ta'en it away, I secni him, he cionc it himself. Mr. Murray says that this is quite opposed to Scotch. It is not uncommon in Englaud. Thriv, driv, striv, riz, are nised for throve, drove, strove, rose. I givit him an hour ago, he conve home this morning, he run down stairs. Sut, sput, lot, brang, are used for sat, spat, let, brought.

Scotch Words in Belfast-Bing heap, boke to retch, brash short and sudden illness, cleck hook, clype large piece, coggle to shake, to rock, cowp to upset,
to barter S, dunsh kuock against, jolt, butt, dunt knock, blow, dwine pine, farl cake of bread, footy mean, paltry, taking a mean adrantage at play S , fozy spongy, hoke make holes, jeuk to dodge, lappered congealed, clotted, oxtther armpit, prod to stab, screnty niggard, scundther to disgust, (ska nor) S, sheugh a ditch (sokwh) S, skelly squint, skelp slap v. and n., sleckit sly, slocken slake, quench, smudge to smirk, stoon pang, ache, speel climb, smush refuse n. [quasi what is smashed], stoor dust, stroop pipe, sprout, thole endure, throw twist, thend knock or
thump, warsh insipid, tasteless (wersh) S, wheen a quantity.

Unusual words not Seoteh.-Curnaptious crabbed, captious, dotther to stagger, floostther wheedle, footther to bungle, a bungler, jubious suspicious, mistrustful [dubious?], jundy to jostle, ramp rank, rancid, sapple to soak, to wet thoroughly, seam to scorch, seringe to creak, sevendible thorough, sound, skelf a small splinter.

English words in un-English uses.1. Scotch. Even to impute, to suppose capable of, or guilty of, terrible extremely, exceedingly ['terrible' common in Kent], boast holiow, (bu's) S, clash a tell tale or idle tale, clod to throw, eraek talk gossip, gaunt yawn, gutters mire, loss to lose, pang cram,
seout squirt v . and n. -here there where hither thither whither [almost universal in England], a taste, a lock, a grain, a very little.
2. Not Scotch. - Bloodshed bloodshot, right thorough, them those [very common dialectally], welt to flag, a ha'p'orth any thing at all, as "I don't know a ha'p'orth about it, he won't say a ha'p'orth about it, there wasu't a ha'p'orth wrong with him."
Scoteh phrases. - Whose owe whose is [see Murray, op. eit. p. 193], the t'other the other, throughother confused, deranged [Germau dureh einander], a sore head a head ache, let on let be known, pretend v., carry on misbehave, put upon ill used, imposed upon; my, his, her, its, lone alone.

## Vulgar and Illiterate English

might be classed among educated English, if credit is to be given (as it should be given) to the following extract from Punch ( 6 Sept. 1873, vol. 65, p. 99):

## Dialogue between Boy Nobleman and Governess at a Restaurant.

Lord Reginald. Ain't yer goin' to Stable-Boy, and Dolly's a Laundryhave some puddin', Miss Richards! It's so Jolly !

The Governess. There again, Reginald! 'Puddin' '-' goin' '-'Au't yer '! !! That's the way Jim Bates

Maid!

Lord Reginald. Ab! but that's the way Father and Mother speak, tooand Father's a Duke, and Mother's a Duchess!! So there! and Dolly Maple speak-and Jim's a

But there is more in it than this. The so-called vulgarities of our Southern pronunciation are more frequently remnants of the polite usages of the last two centuries, which have descended, like cast-off clothes, to lower regions. Were there time and space, it would be interesting to compare them in this light. But the American and Irish usages just collected are sufficient for shewing the present state of these mummified forms, and we pass therefore at once to the more pressing investigation of the rarieties of natural speech, as the only glimpse that we can get into the secthing condition of the old pre-Chaucerian period, wherein our present language was concocted. Manuscripts transcribed by copyists who infused their own local habits into the orthography, and sometimes into the grammar, of their originals, afford at best but perplexing materials. We cannot hope to understand the ancient conditions but by examining their modern realisation.

## § 2. Natural English Pronunciation.

## No. 1. Natural Pronunciation.

By "natural," as distinguished from "educated," English pronunciation, is meant a pronunciation which has been handed down historically, or has changed organically, without the interference of orthoepists, classical theorists, literary fancies, fashionable heresies,
and so forth, in short "untamed" English everywhere, from the lowest sulgarity, which, as just statel, is often merely a cast-skin of fashion, to the mere provinciality, which is a genuine tradition of our infant language. An exhaustive or even an approximatively complete investigation of this subject is far too extensive to be taken up in this place. It will, I hope, be gradually carried out in detail by the English Dialect Society, for it is full of interest for the history of our language.

In the present section, which is all that I can derote to an investigation which must extend over many years aud many volumes to be at all adequately conducted, and which has been never generally treated by preceding writers, so that it is not possible to state general views succinctly, I shall endeavour to present some work done at my request, and with my orn steady co-operation, in several characteristic departments, confining myself strictly to pronunciation, which is the phase of dialect to which most inadequate attention has been hitherto paid. For brevity and convenience I dismiss all consideration of merely illiterate speech, beyond the short notice that I have appended to the last section. It requires, and as an important constituent of our language deserves, a very careful study ; but time, space, and materials are alike wanting.

To myself individually the present section of my work appears meagre and unsatisfactory in a high degree. Instead of being, as it ought to be in such a work as the present, the result of mature study and long research, it is a mere hasty surface tillage of patches in a district not even surveyed, scarcely orerlooked from some neighbouring height. I should have been ashamed to present it at all, had I not thought it incumbent on me to complete at least the conception of the investigations promised on my title-page, and to furnish the best which circumstances allowed me to scrape together. While I have been laying friends, and voluntary but hitherto unknown assistants under contribution, the fact that the conception of writing the sounds of dialects is altogether new has been gradually forced upon me, by hours and hours of wasted labour. From Orrmin and Dan Michel to Dr. Gill was a barren period. From Dr. Gill till Mr. Laing's transcription of Tam o' Shanter (1182, $d^{\prime}$ ) was another. But with Mr. Melville Bell's Visible Speech Specimens an entirely new epoch was initiated. Mr. Murray's Scotch Dialects have worthily opened the real campaign. In this section I indicate, rather than exhibit, what is meant by comparatice dialectal phonology, and I only hope that the results may suffice to call attention to the extreme importance of the subject, not merely to the history of the English language in particular, but to comparative philology in general. In our studies of language, we have too much neglected the constitution of its medium-sound. If language is but insonated thought, yet it is insonated, and the nature of this body must be far more accurately studied than hitherto, if we would understand the indications of its soul.

## No. 2. Phonetic Dialects.

A dialect considered phonetically is not a series of mispronunciations, as the supercilious pseud-orthoepist is too apt to believe. It is a system of prounciation. We must distinguish between a grammatical and a phonetic phase of language. They are not necessarily co-extensive. Within the same grammatical region exist rarious phonetic regions. But still there is something of the same character pervading both. Varied as are the phases of South Eastern pronunciation, they have all a different character from either the Northern or the Western. Our older English is all dialectal. First Mr. Garnett ${ }^{1}$ and afterwards Dr. Morris have done much to compare them with one another grammatically, and, so far as mere letters allow, phonetically. ${ }^{2}$ In the present work an attempt has been made to determine approximatively the value of those letters. The determination can be at most approximative, for the writing even by carefnl writers, as Dan Nichel and Orrmin, could have only been in itself approximative. The writers had no means at command to express, or training to appreciate, a rariety of pronunciation even remotely approaching to that at the command of those who use palaeotype, and that is not itself sufficient perhaps to indicate the various shades of really unbridled natural pronumciation. Suppose we limited ourselves to the rowels (ii i, ee e, aa a, oo o, uu u, Jy J), and the diphthongs to be made from them, and attempted to write received English from dictation, such as the passages given on pp. 1206-7, what would be the result? I will endeavour to carry out the program for my own pronunciation there given. The result would I think be something like this. The lines are arranged as on p. 1206, col. 1, to facilitate comparison.

Dhe rittn en printed reprizenteeshen e dhe saunz ev laqgwedzh bi miinz ev karektez, whitsh er insefishent booth in kaind en nomber, en whitsh mos dheafoa bi kembaind oa modifaid if wi wed give grafikel simbelizeeshen e dhe fonettik ellements widh oonli som digrii er egzaknes en kenviiniens, Hez biin frem oal taim, fe neeshenz ez wel ez individdiuelz, liqgwistikel stiudents not eksepted, won e dhe moos neseseri en won e dhe moos
difikelt ev problemz, en
ez konsikwentli skeasli
evve bin nappili solvd. Let
dhis tiitsh es dhet dhi
invenshen ev raitiq, dhe
greetest en moost
impoatent invenshen
whitsh dhe Hiumen maind
ez erve meed, en whitsh,
az it indiid oalmoost
eksiidz its streqth,
неz $\operatorname{bin}$ ofn en
not ondzhosli etribbiuted
te dhe golz ; laik dhi oagenizm er e stect et wons simpl en kompleks, iz not
dhe weak ev individdinelz, bot ev sentiurez, peraps ev thauzenz ev jiaz.

On comparing this with the original on p. 1206 , it will be seen
that the absence of a mark for (0), which no European language has ret accommodated with a fixed sign, has oceasioned much trouble. In unaccented syllables (e) naturally presented itself, and in accented ( 0 ). The roeal $r$ had of course to be omitted, but the diphthongs (ea, ia) replace (әə ee', $i i^{\prime}$ ) in accented syllables. The (Ai) would be felt as something like ( 0 ) and as something like (a), so that (oa) would readily suggest itself. The distinction between long and short vowels is, properly speaking, an innoration, and it has given great power to the transeription. But the duplication of simple consonants after accented short vowels is almost inevitable. The net result, although really a burlesque on modern received pronunciation, would, if prononnced as written (with at most the usual German indistinctness or Freuch obscuration of unemphatic e), be perfectly comprehensible, and would be only thought a little broad here and a little thin there, and rather peculiar in places, so that we might put it down to a foreigner who could pronounce English remarkably well-for a foreigner. I think that I have come much nearer than this to the pronunciation of Shakspere and his followers, and that I have even given a better representation of Chancer's. But as to the various dialectal pronunciations, as determined by the present written specimens, I should be satisfied if I eame as near, not only in the xiv th and xvir th centuries, but to-day in the xix th, when reading English dialects written by contemporaries. What kind of an alphabet we now require for the representation of English dialects, I have two or three times attempted to shew $(1174, d)$. The experience gathered by actual use has led me to modify and improve those attempts, and to select from the whole list of phonetic elements those which appear necessary for the special purpose

- of writing English dialects (see No. 5 below). And I shall later on select three verses from the various dialectal versions of the Song of Solomon executed for Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte, and give them in their various original orthographies, contrasted with this Glossic system, so far at least as I am able to interpret the original. But otherwise I shall continue to use the palaeotypic methorl of writing, in order not to fatigue the reader with rarious systems of spelling.

Properly speaking, then, it would be necessary to group phonetic dialects according to the pronunciations of what are deemed the same words, or, more accurately, according to the phonetic dialectal forms which may be traced to a common ancestor. At present we have no means of doing so. It is as yet extremely difficult to ascertain the sounds used in our dialects, because those who possess the practical knowledge find themselves unable to communieate it

[^10]like Dogberry's reading and writing, to come by nature (MA 3, 3, 7).
${ }^{2}$ See suprà pp. 408-411, and especially footnote 3 to $p$. 409. See also Chap. VII. pp. 62-73, of Dr. Morris's Historical Outlines of English Accidence (2nd ed. 1872, smail 8ro. pp. 378).
on paper with the accuracy required for the present purpose. In fact most of them have to learn the meaning and use of alphabetic writing. We have to class the dialects partly phonetically and partly grammatically; then, having got these classes, to make out as extensive a vocabulary of each as possible, and ascertain the sound of each word separately and in connection, as well as its descent. This is clearly a gigantic task, and must therefore be postponed. The admirable comparison of Scotch and English sounds in Mr. Murray's work (p. 144) suggested to me, however, that it might be possible to select some thousand words which were tolerably likely to be common to most dialects, and, being received words, had a received orthography by which they might be identified, and then to obtain the dialectal pronunciation of these words. The kindness of some friends has allowed me to do so to a moderate extent, and far enough at least to shew the meaning of the process. I have grouped these according to received spellings, so that the dialectal de-formations (in a geometrical, not anatomical sense) may be to some extent compared. But I have not been able to do more than give a sample of the work wanted to be done before we can properly grasp the notion of phenetic dialects. I have eked out this attempt with comparative indices which at any rate will shew how little the present haphazard or 'picturesque' writing of dialects effects in this direction.

But to condense the view of dialects still further, $I$ bethought me of procuring comparative translations of a single short specimen containing many words very characteristically pronounced, and also many grammatical phrases which have distinct idiomatic equivalents. ${ }^{1}$ Although I have not succeeded in getting a complete series of trustworthy versions of this specimen, and although possibly something very much better could be suggested by the experience thus gained, probably enough has been done to shew how much the comparative study of our dialects would be advanced by the simple process of getting one well selected set of phrases, instead of merely isolated words, or distinct and unconnected tales, printed in a careful phonetic rersion for every available phase of dialect. In glancing from page to page of these versions I seem to gather a new conception of the nature of our English language in form and construction, and to recognize the thoroughly artificial character of the modern literary language. We know nothing of the actual relations of the thoughts of a people, constituting their real logic and grammar, until we know how the illiterate express themselves. Of course it would be absurd for those possessing the higher instrument to descend to this lower one, and for the adrance of our people, dialects must be extinguished-as Carthage for the advance of
${ }^{1}$ In putting this together I had the valuable assistance of Mr. Murray, who made many excellent suggestions and additions, and the Athenceum and Notes and Queries were good enougl to draw attention to it in Oetober, 1873. This has not been without some effect, as
will be seen hereafter, though far less than I had hoped. Assistants thus attracted have, however, often brought others to the work, so that on the whole my volunteer staff has been practically large, and its zeal has been exemplary.

Rome. But for the advance of knowledge among the literate, let the dialects be at least first studied. We all know the value of fossils. The phonologic study is of course only the first round of the ladder, but it must be placed in position, and the sooner the better, because its material is the most difficult to reeover. One very important, historically the most important of our English dialects (that of Forth and Bargy), has died out of the world of speech-sounds within the last fifty years! I have long entertained the opinion that a knowledge of our living dialects is the only foundation for a solid discrimination of our Anglo-Saxon varieties of speceh. The actual existence of an English Dialect Society under the able inspiration of the Rev. W. W. Skeat will, I hope, do much to lift the reil which at present hangs over them, and to shew the new value which they will aequire by a comparative study.

## No. 3. Arrangement of this Section.

The present section will consist of numerous " numbers," each of them very distinct. After giving, in No. 4, Dr. Gill's account of English Dialects, I shall consider the Dialeetal Alphabet in No. 5, first as to the actual sounds used, and secondly as to their "glossie" representation for practical use. Then I shall consider the Dialectal Vowel Relations in No. 6, and afterwards those of the Consonants in No. 7. These numbers contain the principal philological considerations in this section. I regret that haring been obliged to compose them before I could complete my collections, they are wanting in many points of detail ; but they will I hope serve to give some general views on the very difficult subject of comparative dialectal phonology, which future observers may complete and rectify, and thus furnish the required thread for future erystallisations. Next, in No. 8, will be added an abstract of the Bavarian dialectal changes of rowels and consonants, which offer an important analogy to the English, and have been admirably investigated by Schmeller. After this, through the kindness of Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte, I am able in No. 9 to present his classification of the English dialects, supplemented by Mr. Murray's classification of Lowland Scoteh. To illustrate the l'rince's work, and the orthographical systems or non-systems of dialectal writing hitherto employed, I shall in No. 10 extract the most noteworthy words, in the original orthography, from the versions of the Song of Solomon into various English dialects, which were made for him some years ago. These I do not attempt to transliterate into palacotype, as I feel so much doubt on many points of pronunciation, while the general intention will be elear to any reader without interpretation. The Glossic rendering of three verses by way of example is given with much hesitation.

The following No. 11 presents a series of attempts to give something like an accurate rendering of dialeetal pronunciation in the shape of the elassified lists of words and examples already referred to, in which the sounds are given in palaeotype. Taking Mr. Murray's admirable list of Seotch words as a basis of comparison, it
will be given first entire, without his historical spelling, with each word rendered into palaeotype. This was really the first trustworthy representation of Scotch sounds that had been given. Mr. Murray himself will kindly revise the proof-shcets of this re-edition. The various other lists and examples have been furnished by many kind contributors, whose names and qualifications will be duly chronicled as each dialect comes under notice.

In No. 12 I shall place in juxtaposition the best renderings I have been able to obtain of the comparative specimen already referred to. The reader will thus be able to glance readily from one to another on consecutive pages, unincumbered by long explanations, as all such matter will have been given previously on a page duly cited, and hence immediately recoverable.

In all arrangements of dialectal varieties and specimens, the order of the elassification given in No. 9 will be followed as much as possible, and its numbers will be invariably cited, so that one part will constantly illustrate the other.

In No. 13 I hope to give a comparative vocabulary of at least the principal words adduced in Nos. 11 and 12, arranged alphabetically for the words, and in order of classification for their sounds, so that their forms may be readily studied as they vary from one phase of pronunciation to another.

The general bearing of this investigation on Early English Pronuneiation will be considered at No. 6, v., and may be reverted to in Chap. XII.

## No. 4. Dr. Alexander Gill's Account of English Dialects.

The earliest phonetic aceount of English dialects is the short sketch by Dr. Gill, which, from its importance, I give at full length. Written 250 years ago, it is valuable as showing the comparative tenacity with which our dialects have held their own, as against the reeeived pronnnciation, which, under the influence of literature and fashion, has been and is still continually altering. And it is still more ralnable as being the only real piece of phonetie writing of dialects between the early attempts of Orrmin and Dan Nichel and those of the present day. The old scribes indeed wrote dialectally, but after a preseribed system of orthography, which recalls to me the modern Lancastrian spelling, an orthography so stereotyped that persons may write what looks like Lancastrian, but is merely disguised literary English, and may at the same time be quite unable to write Laneastrian pronunciation.

The following extraet forms the whole of the sixth chapter of Dr. Gill's Logonomia, pp. 16-19. The palaeotype is a transliteration as usual.

Dialecti: vbietiam de diphthongis improprijs.
Dialecti precipuæ sunt sex: Communis, Burealium, Australium, Orientalium, Occidentalium, Poetica. Omnia earum idiomata nee noni, nee andiui ; quæ tamen memini, vt potero dieam.
(Ai), pro (ai), Borealium est: vt in (fai er), pro (faier) ignis: Et (au) pro (ou), vt (gaun), aut ctiam (gcaun), pro (goun) toga : et pro
(uu), it pro (wuund) wound vulnus, (waund). Illis etiam frequens est (ea) pro (e), vt (meat) pro (mect) cibus; et pro (o), vt (beadh) pro (both) ambo. Apud meos etiam Lincolnienses audies (toaz) et (ноа\%) pro (tooz) digiti pedum, et (Hoоz) hose calige.' Efferunt et (kest), aut etiam (kusn), pro (kast) iactus, a, um; (ful'a) pro (fol'oou'; ${ }^{2}$ (klooth) pro (kloth) pannus; et contra (spok'n), pro (spook $n$ ) dictus: (dumn) pro (dun) factus: et (tuum), pro (taim) tempus: (raitsh) pro (ritsh) dives: (dhoor) pro (dheer) illic: (briiks), pro (britshez) bracee: (seln) pro (self): (неz), pro (наth): (aus) pro (aal•soo); (sud) pro (shuuld) : (oil, aist), aut ${ }^{3}$ etiam (ail, aist), pro (ai wil), futuri signo: rt et in reliquis personis (dhoul), aut (dhoust); pro (dhou wilt, dhou shalt), et sic in reliquis: (hiil), aut (niist); (wriil, soul) aut (soust) ; (dheil, dheist), aut (dhci sal). In (ai), abjiciunt (i), vt pro (pai) soluo (paa); pro (sai) dico (sai); et pro (said, sed). Pro (u) et (uu), substituuut (yy): vt, pro (gud kuuk, gyyd kyyk), bonus coquus. Voces ctiam nonnullus pro vsitatis fingunt: ut (struut) et (runt), pro (rump) cauda : (sark) pro (shirt) camisia; pro (go) ito, (gaq), et inde (gaq.grel) mondicus; pro (went, Jed) aut (Jood) ibam, ab antiquis etiamnum retinent. ${ }^{4}$

Australes vsurpant (un) pro (ii), ut (пuu), pro (нii) ille: (г), pro (f); vt, (vil), pro (fil) impleo : (tu vetsh) pro (fetsh) affero : et contra (f) pro (v), vt (fin'eger) pro (vin'eger) acetum; (fik'ar) pro (vik•ar) vicarius. Habent et (o) pro (a), vt (roqk) pro (raqk) rancidus, aut luxurians, adiect; substantivum etiam significat ordines in acie, aut alios. Pro (s), substituunt (z), vt (ziq) pro (siq) cano; et (itsh), pro (ai) ego: (tsham), pro (ei am) sum : (tshil), pro (əi whi) volo: (tshi voor si), pro (oi warant Jou), certum do. ${ }^{5}$ in (ai) etiam post diphthongi dialysin, (a), odiose producunt: rt, (to paai) solvo, (dhaai) illi.

Orientales contra pleraque attenuant ; dicunt enim (fir) pro (foi ere) ignis: (kiver), pro (kuv*er) tegmen: (ca) pro (a), vt, (to deans),

[^11]10, Wiltshire, Prince L. L. Bonaparfe remarks: "In a very scarce pamphlet which I have been fortunate enough to find, the use of $c h$ instead of $I$ is to be remarked when Wiltshire men are speaking; as, for instance. chave a million for her; chad not thought, etc. This form is not to be fornd at present in the Wiltshire dialect, although it is still in existence in some parts of Somerset and of Devon, and was at one time current in Wiltshire. The title of the very rave and curious little work above mentioned is as follows :-"The | King| and Qrecnes | Entertainement at | Richmond | Alter | their Departure | from Oxford: In a Masque, | presented by the most Illustrious | Prince, | Prince | Charles | Sept. 12 1636. I Nuturam initare licèt jueile nomullis, | vilcatur haud est. | Oxford.| Printed by Leonard Lichfield, | m.de.xxxvi.' At page 5 of
pro (dans) saltare: (v), pro (f), rt (vel.oou), pro (fel $\cdot 00 \mathrm{u}$ ) socius : (z), pro (s), rt (zai), pro (sai), dicito. ${ }^{1}$

At inter omnes dialectos, nulla cum Occidentali æquam sapit, barbariem; et maximè si rusticos audias in agro Somersettensi: dubitare enim quis facilè possit vtrum Anglicè loquantur an peregrinum aliquod idioma. Quædam, enim antiquata etiamnum retinent; $\mathrm{rt}^{2}$ (saks) pro cultro, (nem) aut (nim) accipe; quædam, ${ }^{2}$ sua pro Anglicis rocabulis intrudunt, vt (laks) pro parte; (toit) pro sedili; et alia. Sed et legitima corrumpunt; quædam vsu, quædam pronunciatu, ot (wiiz wai) pro freno; (wiitpot) pro farcimine: (на vaq) huc projice, aut etiam arripe proiectum; item (hii vaqd tu mi at dhe rant). i. in baptisterio pro me suseepit: (zit am) i. sede; (zadraukh) pro (asai• dher.of) gusta; ( $\mathrm{mi}^{3}$ iz goon avisht.) pro (a fish $\cdot i q$ ) abijt piscatum. Sic etiam protollunt (throt-iin) pro (thirtin) 13. (nar"ger), pro (nar"oouer) angustior: (zorg•er), pro (moor sor oouful) tristior. Præponunt etiam (i), participiis preteritis à consonanti incipientibus; vt (ifroor*) aut (ivroor"), pro (frooz'n) gelu concretus; (hav ji iduu*), pro (dun); perfecisti? Hoc etiam peculiare habent, vt nomina anomala utriusque numeri in (z), per numerum vtrumque varient : vt (Hooz) hose sing: et plur : caliga vel caligæ; apud illos singulariter manet (нооz) et pluraliter fit (нооz'n): sie (peez) ${ }^{4}$ communiter pisum vel pisa, cum illis fit pluraliter (peez•n) pisa.

Communis dialectus aliquando est ambiguus. Audies enim (inuf•) et (inukh') novern, satis: (dhai) aut (dhei) they illi ; (tu fliit), aut (tu floot) floate aquæ innatare; (hall-berd, hal berd) aut (hool-berd) bipennis, sic (toil, tuuil; soil, suuil; boild, bild, byyld), vt ante dictum.

Dialecti pootis solis ex scriptoribus concesse; ${ }^{5}$ quibus tamen, exceptâ communi, abstinent; nisi quod rythmi, aut iucunditatis causâ sæpiuscule rtuntur Boreali; quia suavissima, quia antiquissima, quia purissima, stpote quæ maiorum nostrorum sermoni proxima. Sed quia dialectum suam Metaplasmi solâ licentiâ defendunt, de eâ satis dicetur vbi ad prosodiam peruencrimus. ${ }^{6}$
this small quarto volume of 31 pages, I find: ' and because most of the Interlocutors were Wiltshire men, that country dialect was ehosen, etc.'" In the introduction to Dr. Spencer Baynes's Somersetshire Version, the Prince says: "In the Western parts of Somersetshire, according to Mr. Jenuings, Ise is very generaliy used for $I$; and in the southern parts of the county Utchy, Ichè, Ch for $I$ are still employed. Ise is also to be heard in some parts of Devonshive, particularly in those adjoining West-Somersetshire."
${ }^{1}$ The remainder of this paragraph is the passage about the Mopsue, already given at length ( $90, d .91, a)$. The (v, z) for ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{s}$ ). so cmmon in Dan Michel, have qquite disappeared from Kent, and all the East. But a recogruition of their existence somewhere in the East
of England so late as 1621 is important, if it can be relied on.
${ }_{3}^{2}$ Misprinted quadam three times.
${ }^{3}$ Misprinted ' hj ' $=(\mathrm{H} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { i }})$, for ' hi ' $=$ (нi). No (ə̊i, éi) sound of he is known in the West.
${ }^{4}$ (Pez) in the original must be a misprint.
${ }^{5}$ In his preface he says: Quin etiam vbi dialectus variat, facilè patior vt ipsa seriptura sibi minimè const $t$ : vt, (fardher, furdher), ant (furder); (mur-dher) aut (mur-dber), (tul floi) aut (tu fli), (tu fliit) ant (tu floot), \&e. Dialectis autem (exe pot Communi) iu oratione solut â mullu* est locus nisi vbi materix necessitis postulat: l'oetis metaplasmus omnis modestè conceditur."
${ }^{6}$ The passage referreal to is quoted at fuil, suprà p. 936, No. 7.

Et quod hic de dialectis loquor, ad rusticos tantùm pertinere velim intelligas : nam mitioribus ingenijs, \& cultiùs enutritis, unus est ubique sermo \& sono, \& significatu. De renenato illo \& putidissimo ulcere nostre reipub. pudet dicere. Habet enim \& fæx illa spurcissima erronum mendicantium non propriam tantùm dialectum ; sed © cantum ${ }^{1}$ sive loquelam, quam nulla unquam legum vindicta coercebit, donec edicto publico cogantur Iustitiarii cius auctores in crucem tollere. sed quia tota hee dialectus, unà cum nocentissimis huius amnere sordibus, peculiari libro ${ }^{2}$ descripta est; quia exteris hominibus nil commodi allatura; ex oratione meâ circumscribam.

## No. 5. Dialectal Alphabet.

The alphabet of received English pronunciation has been considered at length in § 1. Notwithstanding the differences of opinion respecting the precise sounds usually employed, it is clear that we can take no other starting-point or standard of comparison than these sounds, ${ }^{3}$ though we have constantly to bear in mind the possible rarieties. This alphabet has then to be increased by letters for the dialectal sounds. And both sets of sounds must be conreniently symbolised. For our present purpose the palaeotypic forms more than suffice. But for special studies on English dialects, symbols based on the present received pronunciation are required. Much of the best assistance I have received in collecting dialectal pronunciation is due to the adoption of glossic ( $1174, b$ ), and in the course of my work the necessity of shewing how glossic can be applied to the representations of the sounds has been strongly impressed upon me. The adoption of glossic by Mr. Skeat for the English Dialect Society makes an accurate description still more necessary. ${ }^{4}$ For precise purposes of comparison, such as here contemplated, no symbolisation can be too minute. But when such minnteness is studied, the recorder is too apt to fall into individualities, which he must afterwards eliminate.

The received alphabet may be considered as the following. ${ }^{5}$ The emphatic vovels are (ii ee aa as oo uu, $i$ е æ ə ə $u$ ), with rarieties in

[^12]the case of (e, a), which many pronounce (e a), withont, however, making any difference in signification. I do not see much chance of having these pairs of signs kept apart by ordinary writers. The distinetion $(0,1)$ is also so fine that it is not generally felt, and the tendency is to write (0) short and (as) long, without much thought as to whether (1) short and (ә) long would not be equally correct. The distinetions (i $i, \mathrm{u} u$ ), although seldom known, are jet clearly made. Many persons vary also in the sound of (æ), using (ah) generally, and sometimes (a); but the distinctions (æ, a) are usually well felt by speakers, and, though hitherto almost unrecognized by writers, have a dialeetal value.

Leaving out the diphthongs, then, the above 12 may be considered the emphatic English rowels. Each of them may be long or short, but the first six are seldom short in a closed syllable. The last six are seldom long, with the exeeption of (ə), whieh seems to be (әə) in places where or, ur are written, and no vowel follows. This is a disputed point ( $1156, c$ ). Another vowel (œ>) is assumed to exist in that case. But the distinction (ә, ююo) is very fine, and is certainly not always made. The real point of difference depends perhaps on the fact that long rowels do not glide so firmly and audibly on to the following consonant, as do accented short rowels in closed syllables ( $1145, c^{\prime}$ ). When therefore a mriter puts ( $\infty$ ) in place of (o), he wants to produce the effeet of the short weak glide which follows long vowels $(1161, b)$. Thus to write iron ( $\partial^{\prime} i^{\prime}$, on $)$ would seem to make (ən) the same as in shun (shən). By putting ( $\sigma^{\prime} i \cdot$ enn), this appearance is avoided; but still no $r$ effect is produced, for the theoretical ( $\partial^{\prime} \cdot \dot{\imath} \cdot \mathrm{m}$ ): hence refuge is taken in ( $\infty$ ), thus ( $\partial^{\prime} i \cdot \infty n$ ), the sound ( $\infty$ ) being only known in connection with $r$.

For unemphatic vowels $(y, \varepsilon)$ are practically undistinguished from $(i, \partial)$. Those, however, who use (a) emphatieally, do not use it unemphatically, and employ either (o) or ( $\mathfrak{c}$ ) in sueh eases ( $1160, d$ ). What the precise differences are cannot be said to have been yet determined.

For the Proper Diphthongs, the long $i$ raries as (o'i, á $i$, áh $i$, á $i$, aii), and oceasionally (æ' $\mathfrak{æ}^{\prime}$, E' $i$, e e $i$ ). The length of the second element is fluctuating, and the laws which it follows are unknown. They seem not to be so much individual as emotional, rarying according to feeling in the same indiridual. Consonantal action also interferes. The quality of the first element is partly local and partly individual. At least three forms ( $\sigma^{\prime} i$, áh $i$, ái ) must be admitted as received, and of these perhaps (ái) is commonest, and (áhi) most delicate. But ( $\left.a^{\prime} i\right)$ is also heard from educated speakers, though both ( $\left.x^{\prime} i,{ }^{\prime} i i\right)$ have a broadness which offends many ears. The form (æ'i) is distinctly "eoekney," and ( $e^{\prime} i$, é é) are mincing, to such a degree that they may be understood as long $a$. Hence I would regard only ( $a^{\prime}$, áhi, ái) as received.

The ow diphthong has similar, but more divergent, and more numerous, varieties, and only ( ${ }^{\prime} t$, áh $u, a^{\prime} u$ ) can be considered as received; ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime} u$ éu $u$ éu) are cockney forms, and ( $\mathrm{A}^{\prime} u$ o'u óu óu, á $u$ áu, $\mathfrak{e}^{\prime} u$ ) provincial, and often characteristic of particular dialeets.

The oy diphthong has a much smaller range, at most ( $\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \hat{\prime}, \mathrm{As}^{\prime} i, \mathrm{o}^{\prime} i$ ), of which the first and last are most generally received. From educated people the long $i$ sounds for oy hare disappeared, and (ó $i$, $o j i$, ú $i$ ) are distinctly prorincial.

The second element of these three classes of diphthongs is, at least occasionally, tightencd into a consonant as ( $\partial^{\prime} \hat{\mathrm{j}}$, $\mathrm{o}^{\prime} u \mathrm{w}$, $\mathrm{o}^{\prime} i \mathrm{~s}$ ) or ( $\partial^{\prime} \tau, \partial^{\prime} w, \partial^{\prime} J$ ). How far this practice extends, and whether the result ever degrades into being a pure consonantal syllable as just marked, is not jet determined. Practically we may leare this point out of consideration. Also instead of ( $i, u$ ), the second elements may be always ( $i, n$ ), thus ( $\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{i}, \partial^{\prime} \mathrm{n}, \partial^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ); but this does not seem to be the usual English habit. Mr. Murray assumes (i, u) in Scotch.

The long $u$ has only one reccived sound (iú) or (iú), varying in the length of the second element, and with its first element either falling entirely into ( $J$ ) as ( Ju ), or using a ( $J$ ) as a fulcrum, thus (jiú). These variations are of no importance. But (íu, íiu) are distinctly non-received. They are known and ridiculed.

The ranish diphthongs generally recognized are (ee'j, oo'w) already described at length. To these may be added (áaə, as'ə), although they are generally condemned, because they are supposed to consist in adding on an $r$, and often lead to the euphonic interposition of ( r ) when a vowel follows. But, when this ( r ) is avoided, there is no doubt that (áaə sáə) are very generally heard in the pause. There are, however, rery few words to which they apply.

The murmur diphthongs generally arising from a suppressed (r) have all long first elements, and are hence of the same character as the last. They consist essentially in adding on the simple voice ('h), and if this is represented by ('), there is no occasion to use the acute accent to mark the element which has the stress. In received English these are ( $i i^{\prime}$, ee', $\quad 0^{\prime}$, $u u^{\prime}$ ), where either a vowel usually short is lengthened, or a new rowel is introduced, (oo) for (oo), and to these we must add ( $a a^{\prime}, \Delta A^{\prime}$ ), where there is no new first element. These are heard in merely, fairly, sorely, poorly, marly, Morley. The use of ( $\mathrm{AA}^{\prime}$ ) for ( $0 \mathrm{o}^{\prime}$ ) is very common. The omission of the ranish in (aa', $1 \mathrm{~A}^{\prime}$ ) is also quite common, and in (ee') the vanish is usually very brief. Besides these there is the simple "natural vowel" (ә๐), or else its substitute ( $\varnothing \infty$ ), and these may go off into an indeterminate roice sound, as ( $~\left(0^{\prime}, \infty \infty^{\prime}\right.$ ), in which case the first element would be usually considered short, as ( $\rho^{\prime}, \infty^{\prime}$ ), although it is as long as in the other cases. When (o) is used, it is difficult to feel any transition in saying (əə'), but ( $\left(3^{\prime}, \infty^{\prime}\right.$ ') are quite marked. The sound of Mr. M. Bell's untrilled ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ), in which the point of the tongue is simply raised mithont touching the palate, so that the passage of the voice is not more obstructed than for (1), if so much, is scarcely separable from ( $\partial$, 'h). Whether it is necessary to insist on this separation or not is a question. It is possible that ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ) may be in practice, as it evidently is in theory, the transition from ( r ) to ('h), but its habitual existence has hardly beeu established, aud observations on it are certainly difficult to make. I think that I have heard ( $r_{0}$ ), but I am by no means prepared to say that I have a dis-
tinet conscionsness of it, or that it may not have been a personal peculiarity with those in whom I have observed it. The position of the tongue for ( $\partial$ ) and $\left(r_{0}\right)$ is almost identical. At most the point is a little more raised for the latter. Hence the results cannot be much different. The obstruction for $\left(r_{0}\right)$ is not sufficient to create a buzz. The result is at most a murmur. But for the (' h ) or ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ), combined with a following permissive trill, I use (I), as explained on ( 1099, c).
 ambiguous. But it is so far clear that the (.I) must not be employed unless a trill may be used. We must not write really, idea, as (riü $1 i$, $a^{\prime}$ 'diuï $\cdot$ ), because it is offeusive, or unintelligible to say ( rii ' rl , , $a^{\prime} i d i i^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{r}$ ). But in common talk merely, really (m $i i^{\prime} \cdot 1 i$, rii' $\cdot 1 i$ ) are perfect rhymes. We may, however, say (mii'r rli), and also (rii•əli, rii-bli), but not (rii 1 i) or (rii'rli). There are also murmur triphthongs formed from the first set of diphthongs, as ( $\partial^{\prime} i^{\prime}, \partial u^{\prime}, \mathrm{i} u^{\prime}$ ). The murmurs ('l, 'm, 'n) act as vowels, and may or may not have the prefixed ('), so that (1l, mm, nn), might be written, as Mr . Bell prefers, or simple ( $1, \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{n}$ ) might be used, such cases as stabl-ing (stee $\cdot$ b'liq) being provided for as above, or as (stee $\cdot \mathrm{bl}-i q$ ), or fully as (stee b'hling).

Hence we have the following list of received vowel-sounds simple and combined.

| Long Towels | ее әә аа гох | 0 | uu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Short Towels | c. | a ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| Proper Diphthongs |  | $\partial^{\prime} u$ áh $u$ áu, | iú iúu |
| Vanish Dipluthongs |  | 00' $w$ |  |
| NIormur Diphthongs | i' ее' аа' әə' | ax' AA' $00{ }^{\prime}$ | uи' |
| Murmur Triphthongs | áhı' á $\imath^{\prime}$, o' ${ }^{\prime}$ | áh $u^{\prime}$ á $u$ ', iu' | iu'u' |

The list is a pretty long one, and far beyond the usual resources of orthography to note. But it has to be considerably augmented dialectally. In the provinces we certainly hear long (ii ee ee ææ oo unt, which are always professedly short in received speech, and short (iea $o \mathrm{u}$ ), which are only known as long in received pronnnciation. And there are new long and short sounds (aah ah, aa a, $\mathrm{yy}_{1} \mathrm{y}_{1}$ ), where $\left(y_{1}\right)$ lies between $(y, z)$, and varies possibly with ( $y, z, \infty$ ) short and long. There seems also to be a well-established broader sound of ( $u$ ), which is possibly $\left(u_{0}\right)$, or ( $u$ ) with the lip aperture for ( 0 ), but which may be ( $u \mathrm{~h}$ ), and may be a new sound altogether. My northern authorities are not satisfied with (u), which is too fine for them. As their dialects have usually no ( $x, \partial$ ) in emphatic syllables, they confuse this $\left(u_{0}\right)$, as I will write it for the moment, with (a). The confusion thus arising between ( $x, u_{0}$ ), which is the same as that between ( $\partial, u$ ), is widely prevalent. But on carefully observing the sounds it is apparent that ( a ) is not "rounded," and ( $u_{0}$ ) is "rounded." This rounding can, however, be imitated by contracting the sides of the arch of which the urula is the keystone, so that the effect of ( $u, u_{0}$ ) can be given with an open mouth, thus $\left(u^{4}\right)$, sce (1114, $d^{\prime}$ ). Now rounded (a) is ( 0 ), and on p. 306 I consequently
represented the sound by (o). It is certainly more like (o) than (u) is. It may be $\left(u \mathrm{~h}, u^{4}, u_{0}, o_{\mathrm{u}}, u_{1}, u_{10}\right)$, but either one of the first three seems its best representative. As howerer (a a) and also (e e) have seldom to be distinguished except in phonetic discussions, so $\left(u u_{0}\right)$ may generally be confused. At any rate, the subject requires much attentive consideration. Mr. Hallam has observed in South Laucashire distinctive cases of "rounding" by excessive protrusion of the lips, which may be marked for labials by the same $\operatorname{sign}(\dagger)$ as is used for protrusion of the tongue in dentals $(11, d)$, or as a fifth mode of rounding, thus (ut) or ( $\mathrm{u}^{5}$ ). The fourth or internal rounding may be combined with any of the four others. In Scotch Mr. Murray has found it necessary to introduce additional vowels between (i) and (e), thus ( $i, e^{1}, e_{1}, \mathrm{e}^{1}, \mathrm{c}_{1}, \mathrm{E}$ ), but these are hardly distinguishable by southern ears, to which ( $i e$ e e $)$ already present difficulties. See (1106, $a^{\prime}$ ).

The number of diphthongs must be much increased. Besides the received, and the non-received ( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime} i$ a $^{\prime} i \mathfrak{x}^{\prime} i$ E' $^{\prime} i$ é $i$; E'u éu, $\dot{u} u$, A'u o' $^{\prime}$ ó $u \dot{o} u$, a' $u$ áu), with either ( $i$ i) or ( $u \mathrm{u}$ ) final, there are varieties with ( $e$ e, o o) final, and also rarieties of the form ( $i \mathrm{i}$ íe ía í íu, úi úe úa úo úo úu), where the second element is quite distinct, and may be short, or glide on to a consonant in accented closed syllables, or may be long, and the first element may rary, as (e, o), thus (éa éo, óa óe). The stress also may fall on the second element, as (ié iá, uá uó), ete. But the diphthongs are by no means confined to (i, $i, e, \mathrm{e} ; \mathrm{u}, u, o, o$ ) for one of their elements. Certainly ( $5_{1}$ ) or ( $5,2, \infty$ ) occurs as an element, and sometimes the whole diphthong may be made up of these elements. Thus (éy) was heard in Norfolk $(135, c)$ as a rariety of the (iú) form, and ( $\propto^{\prime} y_{1}$ ) is said to occur in Deronshire as a rariety of (áu).

There are also murmur diphthongs, not arising from a suppression of (r), consisting of any one of the rowels, but chiefly (ii,ce,oo $\mathrm{u} u$ ), short and with the stress, followed more or less closely by the simple roice ('h). The closeness is sometimes so marked that the net result, as ( $i^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ ) in Scotch, is felt and conceived as one sound, which may be even short in a closed syllable, just as many people consider received long $i$ to be a simple sound. But the closeness
 belong to those mentioned in the last paragraph. At other times the first element is lengthened, as ( $i i^{\prime}$ ), and then the received murmur diphthongs are reproduced in effect, but they have no longer neecssarily a permissive ( r ).

The received consonants are (nh) and (p b, td, $\mathrm{kg}, \mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~g} w$, wh $\pi$, $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{r}}$, th dh, $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{sh} \mathrm{zh}, \mathrm{sh} \mathrm{J}, \mathrm{rlmnq}$ ). These all occur dialectally, together with the glottids ( H ; ). There are, however, new consonants; certainly ( $k g$, kh kh k $w \mathrm{~h}$ ), and perhaps ( $g \mathrm{~h}$ gh g $w \mathrm{~h}$ ), but these are doubtful. ( $\mathrm{N} h, \mathrm{r} w$ ) seem to be known, among a few old people, but (lh) I have not heard of. The (, sh zh) only occur in ( $t$.sh d. zh ), and practically need not be considered separately from these combinations, which may be written (tsh dzh). But there is altogether an unexpeeted occurrence of true dental (. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) formed as
the real mutes of (th, dh) by placing the tongue as for these sounds, but making the obstruction complete. These are seldom found except before ( r ), or the syllable (ər), or (ə), or any other indistinct rowel representing (ar), although at least a trace of them has been found after (s), and probably, when attention has been drawn to the fact, they may be found elsewhere. But the maiu case to be considered is the dentality of $t, d$, before $r$, as already noticed in Ireland (1239, $a^{\prime}$ to $\left.1241, a\right)$. The question arises whether ( $r$ ) is also dental in this case, as (r). I have not noticed the dentality, but I am inclined to consider this due to my want of appreciation, for others do hear it as dental in such a case. See also the Sanscrit use ( $1138, b$ ). The peculiar rolling Irish ( $r^{r}$ ) in these eases (1232, b) must also be noted. Mr. C. C. Robinson thinks he recognizes a dental ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) in some other cases in Yorkshire, as will be pointed out hereafter. A nasal $\left(b_{6}\right)$, as distinct from ( m ), is also found in Westmorland and Cumberland. The uvular ( $r$ ) is well known as the Northumberland burr, and there are no doubt distinct rarieties of this burr. There may be probably even a glottal ( x ) in Shields, and in the Western dialects, though I am more disposed, from what I have been able to observe personally, to attribute the Western effect to the use of a peculiarly deep vowel ( $\Xi$ ), gruffly uttered.

In Yorkshire and Cumberland a ( t ) occurs which is heard before a following ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ), as at t' time, at $t^{\prime}$ door, $t^{\prime}$ church, $t^{\prime}$ gentleman, $t^{\prime}$ cart, $t^{\prime}$ garden, and is heard also as a distinct element before a vowel, as $t$ ' 'ouse, $t$ ' abbey, without coalescence. I think that in these cases there is a true, though very brief, implosion (1097, $c^{\prime}$. $1113, a$ '), and that the result is (at 't tám, ''t, uus), and at least three of my kind helpers, to whom this $t$ is native, recognize the correctness of this analysis. The effect is quite different from (at táim, tuus), and in the first case does not seem to be sufficiently represented by a held consonant, as (att táim).

These are our dialectal elementary and diphthongal sounds, so far as I have yet learned them. The question is how to represent them. The ordinary spelling will not do. Ordinary dialectal writers help themselves over local difficulties in varions manners, which render comparison extremely difficult. We have, in fact, reproduced on a smaller scale, and with more exaggerated features, the European differences in the use of Roman letters, crossed br our insular usages. No system of notation extends beyond a single author. The same author seldom pursues the same plan in two consecutive books, often varies on the same page, and is supremely indifferent to any dialect but his own. Just as an Englishman, accustomed from his birth to received sounds, reads them off from the received orthography, or any conceivable mis-spellings, without hesitation, while a foreiguer, after years of training, constantly stumbles; so the man native-born to a dialect, or having the sounds constantly in his ears, reads off his own dialectal spelling without difficulty, but this same spelling put before a stranger, as myself, becomes a series of riddles, nay worse, continual suggestious of talse
sounds. Eren after aequiring a tolerable conception of the dialectal pronunciation of a given locality, I have been constantly "floored" -I can't find a more elegant phrase to express my utter defeat-by some dialectal spelling of the same variety sent me by a new hand. Of course comparative study remains impossible when the things to be compared are unknown. Conelusions hitherto drawn are merely arrows drawn at a venture-they may hit the mark, but who knows? My Glossic was contrived for the purpose of overcoming these difficulties, and my recent experience has led me to the conclusion that it is really adapted to orereome them, by extremely simple means, which enables the received and any dialectal pronunciation to be written with almost the same correctness as by palaeotype, without any typographical troubles, such as raried roman and italic letters, turned letters, or, except very rarely, accented letters. Haring shewn how Glossie can be used for the received pronunciation ( $1174, b$ ), I proceed to shew how the dialects may be written, because I hope that, through the influence of the English Dialect Society, it may be extensively used for this purpose. But I would especially guard against the error that, because a person can pronounce a dialect, and because Glossic gives a means of writing it, and Glossic merely uses ordinary letters, generally, at least as a basis, in their receired meanings, therefore it is only necessary to put the key to Glossic before one's eyes in order to be able to write a known pronunciation straight off. You might as well expect that when a key to the relation of the notes in music to the keyboard of a piano has been given-say by pasting on each finger key the written name of the sound it will give-to any grown girl of average intellect, she will be instantly able to play off a piece of music presented to her. We know that she must learn and practice her seales first. Glossic writing is an art which also requires care and practice. To one who can already read and write, it is comparatively easy for the sounds he linows, not by any means easy for others, as when a stranger would write from dietation-my own case, when I am fortunate enough to find one who can dietate. But if a thing is is worth doing at all, it is worth doing well. At present dialectal writing is not done eren ill: it is literally not done at all. The present arrangements supersede those above given, pp. 606-618, as they are founded on a much wider experience, but the basis of the system is the same. Glossie symbols are here inclosed in square brackets [ ], the palaeotypic being placed in a parenthesis ( ).

## Quantity and Accent.

Each vowel-sign represents either a short or a long vowel. When no mark is added, the letter always represents a short vowel. It is wery important to bear this rule in mind.

In unacented syllables vowels are gencrally short. If it is considered necessary to mark length without accent in such syllables, two turned periods are added, thus [ec"].

When a long vowel oceurs in an acconted syllable, a single turned period is written immediately after it, as [ee, ec $\cdot \mathrm{t}$, ee $\cdot \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{n}]$.

When a short vowel occurs in an accented syllable, it is generally followed by a consonant, and a turned period is placed immediately after the first following consonant, as [eet $\cdot$, cen $\cdot$, it $\cdot$, in $\cdot]$, but if, as occasionally happens, a short accented rowel occurs without
a following consonant, two direet periods, a usual sign of unfinished utterance, must be written, as [ee.., i..], and [guo..in] for going.

It is rarely necessary to mark a middle length, but when it is, (:) may be placed before the rowel in unaccented syllables, as $[: e e]=\left(\mathrm{i}^{\mathrm{i}}\right)$; it will thus not interfere with the use of the colou as a point. The combination of this with the turned period, as [:ee•] = ( $\left.\mathrm{i}^{\mathrm{i}}\right)$, marks medial length in accented syllables.

Secondary accent is not distinguished from the primary in Glossic ; if it is strong enough to be marked, put two marks of accent, as [tu•npei•kmu'n], and leare the actual stress doubtful, as in fact it often is. The preceding use of (:) for medial length renders its accentual use as in palaeotype impossible.

Emphasis is conveniently marked by the turned period before the whole word, thus to two [too too].

These rules for quantity are very important, because they enable quantity to be exactly expressed in every case, thus (aa $a \cdot$ ) $=[\mathrm{aa} \cdot \mathrm{a} a .$.$] , \left(\mathrm{kaa} \cdot \mathrm{t} k \mathrm{a}^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{t}\right)=$ [kaa•t kaat $\cdot]$, (kaat) $=[$ kaa $\cdot \mathrm{t}]$. Of course words of one syllable cited independently of context may be considered as always accented, and hence we may distinguish $\left[\right.$ too ${ }^{\circ}$, too.. $]=(t u u, t u)$.

The rule for marking the quantity of the first element in diphthongs is precisely the same, the second element being considered as a consonant, as will appear presently. It is not usually necessary to mark the quantity of the second element.

The accent should be written in every polysyllabic word or emphatic monosyllable when writing dialectally, because its omission leaves the quantity uncertain, as any sound may occur either long or short. Dialectal writers, who begin to use Glossic, are extremcly remiss on this point, and fall into many errors in consequence, probably because in reeeived pronunciation the short and long vowels are known from their qualities. But this is emphatically not the case dialectally. Of course, ease to the writer, without much obscurity to a native reader (1252, d), may be attained by omitting all these troublesome marks of accent and quantity, which necessitate a little unusual thought on the part of the writer. But the difficulties thus occasioned to non-native readers by the ordinary orthography of Latin and Italian, as
contrasted with Greek and Spanish, shew how mercilessly the reader is then sacrificed to the writer. Witness those who have been punished at school. or laughed at in after-life, for "false quantities" in Latin, due entirely to the defects of the Latin orthography itself. Sie vös nōn väbīs 'vulnera' fertis, ovès!

All consonants may be considered short, and doubled for length if desired, as [stai $\cdot \mathrm{bll}$, ree $\cdot \mathrm{znn}$ ], or have the long [ $[\cdot]$ added, as [stai $\cdot \mathrm{bl} \cdot$, ree $\cdot \mathrm{zn} \cdot \cdot$ ]. When then a long cousonant ends au acceuted syllable, it must either be doubled and followed by a turned period, or three turned periods are required, as [lettlet..].

## Signs.

The use of short unaccented [ee], medial unaccented [:ee], long unacceuted [ee. ${ }^{\bullet}$ ], short accented [ee.. eet ${ }^{\bullet}$ ], medial accented [:ee*], long acceuted [ $\mathrm{ee}^{\cdot}$ ], should be clearly understood. This notation gets over all difficulties of quantity, and accent.

The apostrophe (') is used to modify a preceding letter, and should never be used to shew the omission of a letter. If that is thought necessary, the hyphen should be employed, as [dhai doa $\cdot 1-\mathrm{t}$ ]. But it is best not to indicate so-called omissions, for they distinctly belong to the false theory that the word is a mispronunciation, and their object is to lead the reader to guess the proper word. When the reader cannot do so, he requires a gloss or a dictionary, and should consult it. Besides, it is not possible to treat so-called insertions in this way.

The hyphen has sometimes to be used to shew how letters have to be grouped, as $[\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{d}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{g}]$, distinct from [ th , $\mathrm{db}, \mathrm{ng}]$. As a rule, when two letters come together which can form a digraph, they should be so read; if the middle of three letters can form a digraph with either the first or third, it must be taken with the first. Any transgression of this rule must be marked by a liyphen, or an interposed turned period, when it can be used. Thus [toaud]= [toa-ud], not [to-aud], and may be written [toa•ud], distinct from [to-au•d, to..au $\cdot \cdot \mathrm{d}]$.

When several words are written together, they may be distinguished to the eye by the divider), thus[t)wuod $\cdot$ )ut)doo ${ }^{\circ}$, dhat $\cdot l$ l)doo]. This ) has no phonetic siguificance whaterer.

## Received Vowels and Diphthongs.

The 12 received emphatic vorvels (ii $e e$ aa AA oo uu i e æ $\mathfrak{\rho}$ ə $u$ )=


The alternative rowels (e ee, a aza) $=[$ ae ac', un un' $]$, and assumed voreel $(\infty, \infty \infty)=\left[e^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right]$.
The zucmphatic rowels $(y, v)$ alwars short are [ $i^{\prime}$, , $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$ ], but need not generally be distinguished from [i, u].

Any one of the diphthongs for long $i$ is represented in an unanalysed form by [ei]. It constantly happens that the writers know it to be one of these diphthongs, but cannot tell which; and it is then very conrenient to be able to give the information that one of these [ei] diphthongs was heard. Similar unanalysed forms are used for the other diphthongs for the same reason. It is rather an inconvenience of palaeotrpe that it does not possess such forms. The three received forms are (a'i, abh $i$,
 bles, first element short. If the first element is long, as (əə'i, áahi, áai), write $\left[u^{\prime} y, a \cdot y, ~ a a^{\prime} \cdot y\right]$. This rule applies generally. These forms with [ y$]$, however, leare unsettled the point Whether the diphthong end with a rowel or a consonant, because it has not much practical importance. But when it is desirable to shew that the final element is a rowel, and to distinguish which rowel, another contrivance is used, which will be explained presently.

Any unanalysed ow diphthong is [ou]. The received forms (o' $u$, áhu, á $u$ ) $=\left[\right.$ un', $a^{\prime} w^{\prime}$, aaw $\left.\cdot\right]$, and if the first element is long, [ $\left.u \cdot w, a \cdot \frac{w}{}, a \cdot \cdot w\right]$ as before.

Any unanalysed oy diphthong is [oi]. The received forms ( $\left.A^{\prime} i, A^{\prime} i, \sigma^{\prime} i\right)=$ [auy; au's, oy'].

Any unanalrsed $\bar{u}$ diphthong is [eu].
 [yoo]. It is not considered necessary to mark these distinctions. But, if required, the short [ěě] or [i] may now be used, thus [द้̆̌oo, yoo, yĕĕoo or [100, yoo, yooo]. On account of the systematic way of representing quantity, the short and long marks need not and should not be used for other purposes, as I formerly proposed.
 are all confused as [aar•]: But if a eystematic way of expressing these is required, we may again have recourse
 And if the sceond element is long, we must use long marks, thus (áai, áai, áii, áii) $=[a a \cdot 1 ̆, ~ a a \cdot c ̌ e ้, ~ a a \overline{1}$, , aaēē' $]$. These long and short marks always point out the unaccented element of a diphthong, so that [aa`ĕĕ] is a monosyllable, but [aa•ce] a dissyllable. These distinetions are, howerer, too fine for ordinary use.

The ranish diphthongs ( $c c^{\prime} \mathrm{j}, o o^{\prime} w$ ) are written [ai•y, oa $\cdot \boldsymbol{w}$ ], or the same as [éei, oun], with which they are usually confounded. It would be possible to write [ai ' $y$ ', oa $\cdot w$ '], but this is scarcely worth while. On the other hand, (áaz, AA'ə) are written [aaŭ, auй], wheu they must be distinguished from ( $a a^{\prime}, A^{\prime}$ ), to be presently symbolised.

The murmur diphthongs with permissive trill are written with a simple [r], which is always considered to be a diphthongising [ü] followed by a permissive trill, and hence must never be used when a trill is not allowable. Thus (ii., ee., aa., AA.I, оод, reи. $)=[\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{r}$, $e \cdot r$, aa $\cdot \frac{r}{}$, au $\cdot \mathbf{r}$, ao $\cdot r$, uo $\left.\cdot r\right]$, and since the change of rowel is instinctively made in received pronunciation, [ee $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{r}$, aa $\cdot \mathrm{r}$, au'r, oa•r, $00 \cdot r$ ] might be written as more generally intelligible in popular Glossic, such as that on p. 1178. For all accurate dialectal purposes, however, the rorrels should be distinguished, and [ee•r] should nerer be confused with [ $\left.i \cdot h^{\prime} \mathrm{r}\right]$, and so on.

Theu for (ә, ゅю) $\pi e$ should, of course, use $\left[\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{e}^{\cdot \cdot}\right]$, but, if there is a
 mamer $=\left[\right.$ man $\cdot \mathrm{ur}$ man $\left.\cdot{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{r}\right]$, carnest $=$ [ e 'rnest]. An obligatory trill is written [ $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}$ ], which may be added to the former, as earring $=\left(i i^{\prime} \mathrm{riq}\right)=\left[\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{rr}^{\prime} \mathrm{ing}\right]$ or [ee'rriq]. Mr. Bell's untrilled ( $\mathrm{r}_{0}$ ) may, when desired, continue to be so written, the (c) being the turned ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) used to mark degrees.

## Dialectal Vouels and Diphthongs.

We have thus exhansted the reccired rowels and diphthongs. For the dialectal additions we have first:
(ii ее ææ оо u, i e a o ocu) $=\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & e^{\prime} & \text { a } & a 0^{*} \\ \text { uo }\end{array} 0^{\circ}\right.$, ee ai aa ao oa oo $]$ and (ah aah, $a$ aa, y yy, з 22, œ œœ)

 It is not considered necessary to distinguish $\left(y_{1}\right)$ from $(y)=[u e]$, with which it is generally confuscd, on the
one hand, or $(\jmath)=[\mathrm{eo}]$, with which Mr. Murray identifies it, on the other ; but, if required, we may write [ùe] for ( $\mathrm{y}_{1}$ ), and similarly [é, è ] for ( $\mathrm{e}^{1}, \mathrm{e}_{1}$ ). The four degrees of rounding ( $1116, b^{\prime}$ ) may be marked by superiors, so that ${ }^{1}$ ) denotes the [au] degree, $\left({ }^{2}\right)$ the [oa] degree, $\left({ }^{3}\right)$ the [oo] degree, and $\left.{ }^{( }{ }^{4}\right)$ the inner rounding, to which we must add $\left({ }^{5}\right)$ for the pouting ( $\left.1256, a\right)$. Thus $\left(A_{0}, u_{0}, o_{u}\right)=\left[a u^{2}, u 0^{2}, o a^{3}\right]$, all of which may occur dialectally. It is advisable, howerer, to avoid the use of such delicate distinctions as much as possible, or, at most, to allude to them in notes and preliminary discussions. If the peculiar sound thought to be ( $u_{0}$ ) $=\left(u 0^{2}\right)$, is identified rather with $(u \mathrm{~h})$, write it [uo'].

The new $y, w$, diphthongs represented on the same principle will be

| ( ${ }^{\prime}$ i | aii æ'i E'i | e) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $=$ [uuy ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ahy* ay* aey* | ey'] |
| (E'u | éu éx, A'r $^{\prime}$ | ว'и о́и |
| $=[\mathrm{aew}$. | ew aiw; auw | ow* |
| óи, | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { a'u } & \text { íu) } \\ \text { vur. } \end{array}$ |  |

with short first element, which would be sufficiently indicated without the accent mark as [aaw], and this form is used in unaccented syllables. A long first element requires the mark, as (ciai, ciau) $=[\mathrm{ah} \cdot \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{ah} \cdot \mathrm{w}]$, or unaccented [ah• y , $a h \cdot w]$. If (i, u) in place of $(i, u)$ occur in the second element, as (di, (a11), write [ahěé, ahŏŏ]. The same contrivance is necessary in such cases as (ii íe ía ív íu) $=$ [iĕĕ ceĕ eeăă eeŏ eeǒŏ $]$, and (éa éo óa бe) $=[$ [еăă căŏ aoăă aoĕ], which are of very rare occurrence. Even when the second element is [ 1, e ěe ], we may write [ y$]$, and when it is [ŭŏ, ŏ 0 ], we may write [w], with quite sufficient exactness, as [iy, uow $]=(i \mathrm{i}, \dot{u} u)$. When the stress falls on the second element, as (ié iá uá uó), we may either write fully [ĕ้ัе ěĕaa ŏŏaa ŏoัoa], or concisely [fe yaa waa woa], as quite near enough for every dialectal purpose.

When the last element is [ u ĕ], we may write it thus or by [. w], because the effect is a variant of [v], thus $\left(e^{\prime} \propto^{\prime} y\right)=$ [aiŭc̆ oeŭĕ] or [ai,w oe,w].

The murmur diphthongs without permissive trill, when ending in ( $(\mathrm{e})$, will be written with [ u ŭ'], but when ending in (') with [ h '], which represents the simple voice, thus
of which (ih' uoh') are the usual forms. Of course if the first element is long, we have $\left[i \cdot h^{\prime}\right.$ no $\left.{ }^{\prime} h^{\prime}\right]=\left(\mathrm{ii}^{\prime} \quad u \mathrm{e}^{\prime}\right)$, and this gives us a means of distinguishing [ $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{r}]$ with a permissive trill, into [ $\left.\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{\prime}\right]$ with no trill, and [ $\left.i \cdot h ' r^{\prime}\right]$ with a certain trill, while [ $\left.1 \cdot r^{\prime}\right]$ has no murmur. Compare English deary me with French dire à moi $=\left(\mathrm{d} i i^{\prime}\right.$ 'r $\dot{i}$ mii, diir a muá $)=$ [di'h'r'i mee, dee ${ }^{\circ} r^{\prime}$ aa mwaa].

## Received Consonants.

The received consonants ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, $\mathrm{k} \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{wh} \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{f} \mathrm{v}$, th $\mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{s} \mathrm{z}$, sh $\mathrm{zh}, \mathrm{lm} \mathrm{m}$ ) are the same in glossic as in palaeotype.

But glossic [ch, j] are used as abbreviations for ( $t, s h, d, z h$ ), which are of constant occurrence ; [tch, dj] ought not to be written, in clutch, judge [kluch, jui], unless we desire to shew that the [t. d] are held, as [klutch judi] $=[$ kluttsh juddzh].

For ( $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{s}$ ) use [ $\mathrm{yh}, \mathrm{y}]$, and for (r), the trilled $r$, employ $\left[r^{\prime}\right]$; but, as in received glossic, simple [ r$]$ is sutficient before rowels, unless great emphasis is given to the trill.

For (q) use [ng], taking care to write $[\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{g}]$ when this group is to be read as two letters, thus engross $=$ $(e n g 7 o a \cdot s)=\left[e n-g r^{\circ} 0 a \cdot s\right]$.

Similarly as [h] must be used for (нh), and also as a part of the combinations [th, $\mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{zh}]$, etc., we must always distinguish [t-h, d-h, s-h, z-h]. The mere accent mark, however, is often enough, as in pothook [pot-huok] pother [pudh•u].

The mere jerk ( H ), which sometimes occurs dialectally where (rh) could not be pronounced, is written (h) thus get $u p=$ [g hae 'r' uop], in Leeds.

The catch (;), which occasionally occurs in place of an aspirate, and sometimes in place of ( $t$ ), will continue to be so written.

## Dialectal Consonants.

The new consonants ( $k g$ ih kh $\mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~h})=\left[\mathrm{ky} y^{\prime}\right.$ gy' $\mathrm{ky} \mathrm{y}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ kh kw'h], where the apostrophised [y', w'] answer to the diacritics ( $\mathrm{j}, v$ ), and are thus distinguished from $[\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{w}]=(\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w})$. Properly ( $\mathrm{k} w, \mathrm{~g} w$ ) should be [ $\left.\mathrm{kw}, \mathrm{g} w^{\prime}\right]$, though few persons may care to distinguish these from [ $\mathrm{kw}, \mathrm{gw}$ ]. The ( $\mathrm{nh}, \mathrm{r} w$ ) are [ $\left.\mathrm{nh}, \mathrm{rw}{ }^{\prime}\right]$. The French $l l$ and $g n$ mouille ( $1 \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{nj}$ ), would be [ly', ny'], if they occurred in our dialects.
'I'he dental (sh, zh) are not required, on account of (ch, j).

But the dental（ $\mathbf{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ）are indispens－ able，and are written（ $\left.t^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right]$ ，as water $=$ Yorkshire［wat＇${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ］．
Dental（ $r$ r），if found，must be $[r]$ ，as ［ $r$＇］is the common trill．There is no need to mark it after［ t ＇，d＇］，except in phonetic discussions，but where it occurs independently，it should be noted．

The uvular（ r ）or burr is［ ${ }^{\text {r }} \mathrm{r}$ ．Irish rolled trill（， r ）may be［ $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$＇］．Glottal （ I ）is $[, r]$ ，with prefised comma．

Nasal（ $\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{t}}$ ）is［．b］，the sign［．］pre－ ceding，instead of following．The same mark［，］will nasalise vowels，when they occur，as［，aa $y$ ］．French nasality is indicated by adding［ n ＇］．

Implosion may have its palaeotypic sign（＇＂），but it will generally be enough to write（at＇t táim）as［aat）t）taay＇m］ or［aat t taaym］，or even［aatt tanym］， in place of the full［aat）＇ t ）taay＇m］．

We have thus probably a complete alphabet for all English dia－ lects．If new signs are required，they will generally be found in the Universal Glossic furnished in the notice prefixed to Part III．of this book．The following is an alphabetical list of the Glossic signs just explained，with their palaeotypic equiralents ；for conrenience italics are used for glossic，and the parentheses of palaeotype are omitted，unless it is also entirely in italie．

## Palaeotypic Key to Dialectal Glossic．

$a$ æ，$a^{*}$ ææ，$a^{\prime}$ ah，$a^{*}$ aah．

 аа’r аал，аай а́д，ааш＊а́u，ає’w ааи， aay ${ }^{\mathrm{d}} i$, ，$a \cdot y$ áai．
ae E ，ae ${ }^{*} \mathrm{EE}$ ，aey＊ $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}$ ，aewo $\mathrm{E}^{\prime} u$ ．
 ahy＇（ái），$a h^{\circ} y$（ ciai），ahw $^{\circ}\left(\right.$ áu $\left.^{\prime}\right), a h \cdot w$ （ćau）．
$a i(e), a i \cdot(e e), a \dot{i}\left(e^{1}\right)$ ，à $i\left(e_{1}\right)$ ，aiy（éi $)$ ， $a i \cdot y$（éei），$a i \cdot y$（ee’j），aiw．（éu）．
ao o，a $0^{*}{ }^{\circ} 0$ ，ao $h^{\prime} 0^{\prime}, a 0^{\circ} h^{\prime}$ оо＇，аоӑă óa， aоё о́е，aо $\quad$ о0．1，aow óu，ac•w óоu．
$a u \mathrm{~A}, a u^{\circ} \mathbf{A A}, a u^{2} \mathrm{~A}_{\mathrm{O}}, a u^{\circ} h^{\prime} \mathrm{AA}^{\prime}, a u^{\prime} r$
 $\mathrm{AA}^{\prime} i$ ．
$a w^{\circ} x^{\prime} u, a^{\prime} w^{*}$ áhu．
ay＇æ＇$i$ ，$a^{\circ} y$ æ＇${ }^{\prime}, a^{\prime} y^{*}$ ah $i$ ，$a^{\prime} y$ áahi．
$b \mathrm{~b}, . b \mathrm{~b}$ 。
ch t，sh．
$d \mathrm{~d}, d^{\prime}, d, d h$ dh．
 căŭ éo．
ee i，єe ii，єєăă ía，е̌раа ía，ееӗ íe，е̌ее ié， ее兀 ii，єе兀̆ í，еей兀 iu，ধ̆еัоо iú，eew íu， éey íi．
$e i$［unanalysed diphthong of the（ai） class，no palaeotypic equivalent］．
$e 0(2), 60^{\circ}(23)$ ．
e＇r eed，$e^{\prime \prime}$ r 000 ．
cu［unanalysed diphthong of the（iu） class，no palaeotypic equivalent］．
ew é $u$ ．
cy éi．
$f^{\prime} \mathrm{f}$ ．
$g$ g，$g w^{\prime} g w, g y^{\prime}$ gj．
$\nrightarrow \mathbf{н h}, ~ h \mathbf{н}, h^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ ．
 （ii＇），$\grave{0}$ iú，iu（io），iu＇íc，iw iu．
$j d_{1} z h$ ．
$k \mathrm{k}, k h \mathrm{kh}, \hbar \tau w^{\prime} \mathrm{k} w, k w{ }^{\prime} \hbar \mathrm{k} 2 c \mathrm{~h}, k y^{*} \mathrm{kj}$ ， $k y^{\prime} \hbar \mathrm{kjh}$.
$l 1, l l$＇l，$l y$＇lj．
$m \mathrm{~m}, m m$＇ m ．
$n \mathrm{n}, n, \Delta, n g$ q，$n-g \mathrm{ng}, n g g$ qg，$n g \hbar \mathrm{qk}$ ， $n n$＇n，ny＇nj．
－ว，o．อ0，ow ○＇$u$ ．
oa（o），oa＊（oo），oa ${ }^{3}\left(o_{\mathrm{u}}\right)$ ，oaw（óu），oa•w （óou），o৫ $w^{\prime}\left(o o^{\prime} w\right)$ ，oay．（ói），oa•y （óoi）．
oe $\propto, ~$ оe œœ，oe w œ＇y．
oi［unanalysed diphthong of the（ $0^{i} i$ ） class，no palaeotypic equivalent］．

ou．［unanalysed diphthong of the（au） class，no palaeotypic equivalent］．
oy o＇i．
$p$ p．
$\gamma^{\circ} \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{g}^{\circ} \mathrm{r},{ }^{6} r\left(\gamma^{\circ}\right),{ }_{6} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}^{9}$ ， $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}^{\circ} \mathrm{I}$ ， $\vartheta \because$ Ir，rw＇rw．
$s \mathrm{~s}$ ．
sh sh．
$t \mathrm{t}, t$＇， t ，＇6 $t$＇6 t ．
$t h$ th．
$u$ ә，$u^{*}$ əә，$u^{\prime}$ к，$u^{*} v^{*}$ әә．．
ve y ，ue yy ，ùe $\mathrm{y}_{1}$ ．
$u 0(u), u 0^{\circ}(u u \imath), u 0^{2}\left(u 0_{0}\right), u 0^{\prime}(u h), u 0 h^{\prime}$ （u＇），$u 0^{\circ} h^{\prime}\left(e \iota u^{\prime}\right), u 0^{\circ} r$（uuх），иой（и́э）， ио $\breve{u}^{\prime}(\dot{u} \mathrm{e})$ ．


uy $\partial^{\prime} i, u^{*} y$ əа＇i．
$v \mathrm{~V}$ ．
$w \mathrm{~W}, w^{\circ}(w), w h$ wh，waa wa uf，woa WO $0^{\circ}$ ú．
$y \mathrm{~J}, y^{\prime} \mathrm{j}, y h \mathrm{Jh}$, yaa $\mathbf{~} a$ iá，ye је ié， yёеоо Јiú，yіัoo Јiú，yoo Ju iu．
$z \mathrm{z}, z / 4 \mathrm{zh}$ ．

Examples of the use of this alphabet, which for any particular dialect is simple and convenient, will be given in No. 10. A leamer ought always to begin with reading received pronunciation as written in glossic, with the conventions of p. 1175, as shewn on p. 1178. He should then gradually attempt to express the diphthongs [ei, oi, ou, eu] in their analysed forms, say as [aay, any, aaw, yoo]. Next he should endeavour to appreciate the varieties [aay, a'y, ay, aey, ey, aiy], and [aay, uuy, uy, e'y], etc. Then he should turu to the unaccented syllables, and endearour to express them unconrentionally. He should constantly check his results to see that he has not allowed old habits of spelling to mislead him, as in using silent letters, or ay, aw for [ai, au], or $y$ final as a vowel, etc. The encroachments of mate $e$ will be found very difficult to resist. There will also be a tendency to write $s$ for either $[\mathrm{s}]$ or $[\mathrm{z}]$, to use th for $[\mathrm{dh}], n g$ for $[\mathrm{ngg}], n k$ for [ngk]; and especially to introduce an $\gamma$ where it may never be trilled, as brort arter, for [brau't aa'tu']. The difficulty experienced by northerners, who have always read $a, u$ as $(a, u)=\left[a a, u_{0}\right]$ in their dialect, to refrain from writing a bad nut instead of (u' baad nuot) is very great indeed. It has been a source of very great trouble to myself in deciphering dialectal writing sent to me. Yet it is absolutely necessary to use $[a, u]$ in the senses familiar in the middle, west, and south of England, and in received speech. Since also only one of the two vowel-somends [u, uu] usually occurs in the accented syllables of any speaker (though both may often be heard, if properly sought for, in the same locality), there is a constant tendency in beginners to use [u] for their own sound, whatever it may be, and to consider [uu] as some mysterious sound which they have not fully grasped. Thus northern writers have constantly confused [uu $\mathrm{uo}^{2}$ ], occasioning terible confusion and tediously evolved rectifications. Again, there is a rery strong tendency to consider [ee, ai, aa, au, oa, oo as necessarily long, instead of being in dialectal writing necessarily short, unless marked as long. It is this which renders the use of [maan] objected to, because it would be read [maa $n$ ] at first. There is the same difficulty in reading [ i , $e^{\cdot}$, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$,
 representing regular sounds of tear n., tear v., burn, sure, and provincial sounds of Bath, old. Great care must be taken with these quantities. Scotch [meet] is not English [mee tt], and [ee] short and [ $\mathrm{i}^{-}$] long occur in Dorset. Another difficulty arises from the constant tendency to write initial $h$ where the dialectal speaker is totally unconscious of its existence, and similarly wh when only [w] is said. Nay, many persons will dialectally insert h, wh, where there was not even the excuse of old spelling, as lurn for run in Somersetshire, where simple $[u \cdot n]=(\partial \partial n)$ is often, if not always, uttered without the least trace of either $h$ or $r$.

These are some of the rocks on which beginners founder. There is another to which I would draw particular attention. A beginner is apt to vary the glossic signs, to introduce new ones, either new combinations, or accented varicties, or even to give new meanings
to combinations already employed for sounds which he has not considered. This mutilation of a system which it has taken years of thought and practice to perfect, by one who just begins to use it, has I trust only to be deprecated, in order to be prevented. Writers may of course use any system of spelling of their own invention which they please, but when one has been elaborated with great care to meet an immense number of difficulties, so that eren a single clange involves many ehanges, and perhaps deranges the whole plan of construction, writers should either use it as presented, or not at all. I feel that I have a right to insist on this, and I should not have done so, had not occasion been given.

There is one point which canses great difficulty, and for which no prorision has jet been made. I allude to dialectal intonation. The principal elements of this are length, force, and pitch.

The vowel and consonant quantity las been provided for.

Syllabic quantity is made up of a number of rowel and consonant quantities of marked differences. To go into this minutely requires a scale of length, and those who choose may employ the numerical system already given (1131, $d$ ). But for rapid writing, an underlined series like. : $1-0=+$ $\mp \pm$ will be most useful, to be reduced to figures afterwards. This may also apply to syllables generally. Here the medium length is 0 , or is left unmarked, the four shorter degrees are. : । -, and the four longer are $=+\mp+1$. This is abundant for most purposes.

Force also requires a series or scale, as already suggested ( $1130, a^{\prime}$ ), but the musical terms and signs there adduced are more generally known.
Pitch cannot be accurately given. The simplest mode that suggests itself to me is to draw a straight line above the line of writing, to represent
the medium pitch, and then a wary line proceeding above and below it, more or less, as the pitch rises or falls. This, for printing, might readily be interpreted as a scale, 0 being the middle line, 1, 2, 3, 4 distauces below, and 6, 7, 8, 9 distances above it.
All these additional marks should either be in pencil or differently coloured ink, and should in print form different lines of figures abore and below the writing, commencing with the letters $\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{P}$, to shew that length, force, and pitch are respectively used, and for each the scale of 9 , of which $\overline{5}$ is the mean, should be used.

No writer should attempt to use these fine indications without considerable practice upon his own pronunciation, putting by his writing for some days, and then seeing whether it is sufficient to recall the facts to his own consciousness. Of course till he is able to do this, he cannot hope to convey them to others.

Lastly, quality of tone is of importance. The dialectal mriter remembers how the Johnny or Betty who spoke the words used them at the time, but they were mixed up with personal as well as local peculiarities of quality of tone, and he can't consey this, or convey the tone unqualified. It is like the despair of the engraver at not conveying colour. The nature of quality of tone has only recently been discovered, and it would be impossible to use the necessary technical language, because it would not be understood. We are, therefore, recluced to explanatory words, such as hoarse, trembling, whining, drawling, straining, and the like. If there is a character for any district, those who care to convey it should study it carefully, and spend, not five minutes, but many hours and days, at different intervals, in noting its characteristics and endeavouring to describe them in writing. All kinds of description are diffieult to write, but descriptions of quality of tone are extremely difficult.

Mr. Melville Bell, in his "New Elucidation of the Principles of Speech and Elocution," (first edition, Edinburgh, 1849, p. 299), a book full of thoughtful and practical suggestions, gives the following summary of points to be borne in mind when representations of individual utterance are given. The symbols are here omitted.

Inflexion. Simple, separately rising or falling from middle tone; compound, wavingly rising and falling, or falling and rising from middle tone.

Modulution. Conversational or middle key, with a high and higher, and a low and lower: and progressive eleration and depression.

Forcc. Vehement, energetic. moderate, feeble, piano ; and progressive increase and diminution of force.

Time. Rapid, quick, moderate, slow, adagio; with progressive acceleration and retardation.

Expression. Whisper, hoarseness, falsetto, orotund, plaintive, tremor, prolongation, sudden break, laughter, chuckling, joy, weeping, sobbing, effect of distance, straining or effect of strong effort, staccato, sostenuto, sympathetic, imitative, expressive pause, sadness, panting respiration, audible inspiration, sighing or suddec audible expiration.

## No. 6. Dialectal Vowel Relations.

## i. J. Grimm's Fiews of the Towel Rclations in the Tentonic Languages.

Jacob Grimm, after haring passed in review the literary rowel systems of the Teutonic languages, proceeds (I.G.I ${ }^{3}$, 527) with freer breath (fieieres athems) to review the relations of quantity (quantität), quality (qualität), weakening (schućchung), breaking (brechung), transmutation (umlaut), promutation fablaut), and pronunciation (aussprache). On the relations of sound and writing he says (ib. p. 579):-
"" Writing, coarser than sound, can neither completely come up to it at ant standing point, nor, from its want of flexikility, at all times even follow up the trail of fluent speech. The rery fact that all European nations received an historical alphabet capable of expressing the peculiarities of their sounds with more or less exactness, threw difficultics in the way of symbolisation. An attempt was gradually made to supply deficiencies by modifying letters. As long as this supplement was neglected or failed, writing appeared. defective. But while thus yielding to sound, writing in return acts beneficially on its preservation. Writing fixes sound in its essence, and preserves it from rapid decay. It is easily seen that purity and certainty of pronunciation are closely comnected with the advance of civilisation and the propagation of writing. In popular dialects there is more oscillation, and deviations of dialects and language generally are chiefly due to want of cultivation among the people. The principle of writing by sound is too natural not to have been applied by every people when first reducing its language to writing. But it would be improper (ungerecht) to repeat it constantly, because writing would then alter in every century, and the connection of literature with history and antiquity would be lost. If modern Greek, French, and English orthography were regulated by their present pronunciation, how insupportable and unintelligible they would appear to the eye! My view is that the rarious German languages had means of representing all essential vowel-sounds, and employed them by no means helplessly. But it would be absurd (thöricht) to measure the old pronunciation by the present standard,
and unreasonable (unbillig) to throw the whole acuteness of grammatical analysis on to the practical aim of orthography."

It is not pleasant to differ from a man who has done such good work for language, and especially for the brauch of languages to which our own belongs, that it would be difficult to conceive the state of our philology without his labours. But Grimm was essentially a man of letters. Language to him was a written crystallisation, not a living growing organism. Its stages as already recognized by writing, he could and did appreciate in a manner for which we are all deeply grateful, but having reached his own stage, he conceived that the new languages were to remain in their present form, for the eye of future generations. The very languages which he cites to shew the insupportability of reinstalling the old principle, " write by sound," are the most glaring European instances of its uecessity. It is only by much study that we acquire a conception of what living Greek, French, and English actuaily are, below the thick mask of ancique orthography which hides their real features. If we had not an opportunity of acquiring their sounds, we should make the absurdest deductions respecting them. We have no occasion to go further than Grimm's own investigations of the relations of English vowels (ibid. pp. 379-401) for this purpose. Haring nothing to bridge over the gap between Anglosaxon and the English of modern prononncing dictionaries, which shew only the net result respecting the literary form of a single dialcet, he was entirely unable to see the relations of the different rowel-sounds. Notwithstanding evan all the previous investigations in the present work, the relations cannot yet be securely traced, and nothing more than indications can here be attempted.

So far from a crystallised orthography fixing pronunciation, it disguises it, and permits all manner of sounds to be fitted to the same signs, as the rarious nations of China use the same literary language with mutually unintelligible rarieties of specech. It is not orthography, but intercommunication, the schoolmaster, and social pressure to which we owe our apparent uniformity of pronunciation. Our medicral spelling was contrived by ecclesiastics familiar with Latin, who tried to use Romance letters to express Teutonic sounds, of course only approximatively, and were able to indicate native variety but raguely. I hare already attempted to shew what would be the effect of trying even a more complete alphabet for representing received pronunciation ( $1245, c$ ), and I hare propounded the list of sounds which are apparently required for dialectal writing $(1262, b)$. If we were to confine ourselves to a mere Latin alphabet, the result would be altogether insufficient. The orthography used by local writers of the present day, founded on the received pronunciation as they conceire it, still confuses many vowel-sounds, and makes perfect havoc of the diphthongs. For the older state of our language, and in the same way for the other Teutonic languages, we have to work up through a similar slough of despond. Hence the rowel relations on which Grimm dwells in the chapter just cited are comparatively insecurely based, and must be accepted as the very
best result that conld then be reached, but not as the best attainable as phonology adrances.

But coming from the dead to the living,-from the letters adapted by learned priests from Latin to Anglosaxon and old English, and more or less rudely followed by paid and unlearned scriveners (249, d. 490, c), to the language as actually spoken by and among our peasantry,-the problem is very different. Our crystallised orthography has not affected the pronunciation of these men at all. They feel that they have nothing in common with it, that they cannot use it to write their own language, but that it represents a way of speech they have to employ for "the gentry," as well as they can. This imitation of "quality talk" is not dialectal, and is really mispronunciation, of the same character as a foreigner's. ${ }^{1}$ The dialectal speakers are in fact foreigners in relation to bookspeakers. Although we are obliged to refer their sounds to those of received speech present or past, yet this is only as a help to our own ignorance. No proper classification is possible without a knowledge of the individuals, and that has, in this case, yet to be collected. The results gathered in Mr. Murray's book on Scotch, and in the present chapter, are quite unexampled for English. They are far too few and too uncertain for scientific results. They can only lead up to theories which will guide future research; but they serve to open out a method which, when generally applied, cannot but prove of the highest philological value. The pronunciation of each district has to be separately appreciated, in connection with a wellchosen and well-arranged system of words. Of course grammatical and other considerations will also have to be weighed, but, from the nature of my subject, I confine myself strictly to phonology. Yet the formation of such a test vocabulary is, in fact, the smallest portion of the task. The discovery of the dialectal sounds of the words it contains for any one district, is a work of very great time and labour, even when the collector has much phonetic knowledge and practice. He must be a person long accustomed to the sounds, one before whom the dialcet people speak freely; and he must be able to write them down when heard. There are numerous country clergymen, country attorneys, country surgcons, country schoolmasters, who are in a position to hear the sounds freely, but they seldom note them. They have sellom the philological education which leads them to consider these "rude" sounds and phrases of any value; and when they take them up as a local curiosity, they are generally unaware of their comparative ralue, and waste time over etymological considerations of frequently the crudest kind. But they are most supremely ignorant of phonology, and have not the least conception of how to write sounds consistently, or of how

1 We shall have occasion to sce how the desirc of "talking fine" produces certain modes of speech in towns, and examples of three kinds used in Yorkshire will be furnished, through the kindness of Mr. C. C. Robinson. The

Scottish pronunciation of English, as distinguished from the vernacular, of which Mr. Murray gives an account (op. cit. p. 138), is an instance of a similar kind. But none of these belong to natural pronunciation proper.
to use a consistent alphabet when presented to them. Eren those who have been partially educated by the use of Mr. I. Pitman's phonetic shorthand and phonetic printing, ${ }^{1}$ are not up to the vagaries of dialectal speech, and make curions blunders, thongh happy am I to find such workers in the ficld. If I am fortunate enough, however, to discover any who have adranced as far as Bell's Visible Speech, or Murray's South Scottish Dialects, I begin to have great confidence. But eren then the habit of strict writing is so slowly acquired, that slips frequently occur, and I have in no case been able to obtain information without considerable correspondence about it, raising points of difficulty and explaining differences, and worrying myself and my friends with questions of detail. ${ }^{2}$

The present considerations have been suggested by an examination of the dialectal specimens which follow. Those which are couched in the ordinary orthography, and which I could not get natives to read to me, are such uncertain sources of information, that I have been able to make them available only by guessing at sounds through information otherwise obtained, and from a general sense of what the writers must have meant. But, of course, I was at first liable to the same sources of error as a Frenchman reading English, with not quite so much information on the sounds as is given in an ordinary grammar. I feel considerable confidence in those specimens which 1 print at once in palaeotype. I could not have interpreted them into this form, if the information I had received had not been rendered tolerably precise. Of course there will be many errors left, but I hope that the specimens are, as a whole, so far correct as to form something like firm footing for scientific theory. The names of each of the kind friends who have helped me in this work. will be given in due order. But I wish generally to express my great obligations to them for their assistance, without which this chapter would hare entirely collapsed. It was a work of great labour to all of them, and was sometimes rendered under rery trying conditions.

Grimm specifies quantity, quality, weakening, breaking, transmutation, and promutation.

Of these promutation-such as the grammatical vowel change in (siq, sæq, saq), or (siq, saq, suq)-has no phonological interest in this work, and will therefore be passed orer.

Transmutation in German is prospectice, and consists in the change of rowel-sound in a word, when a syllable is added containing a rowel of another character. It may also be retrospective, when a sound is reduced to conformity with one that preceles. In one form or the other, this remarkable phenomenon runs through many
${ }_{2}^{1}$ See suprà, pp. 1182-5.
${ }^{2}$ In the case of the comparative example given below, I have often had to send a paper of 50 or 60 (in one case 117) questions before I could make use of the information given. And even then it was difficult to frame them intelligibly, so as to lead to a rcply which
should really give me information. And my first "examination paper" had frequently to be supplemented by a second one on the alswers to the first. I ean only be thankful to the patience of correspondents, mostly personally unknown to me, who submitted to this tedious infliction.
languages; it is marked in Polish and Hungarian, more than in German, and is the basis of the Gaclic vowel rule ( $52, d$ ). The essence of prospective transmutation consists in the consciousness of the speaker that a vowel of a certain kind is going to follow, so that his preparation for that vowel, while his organs are arranged for a different one, produces a third sound, more or less diffcrent from both. ${ }^{1}$ This consciousness crystallises afterwards into pedantic rules, which remain after all action of the consciousness has long disappeared. Not having observations on the English dialects in reference to this phenomenon sufficient to reduce it to rule, I pass it over.

Quality refers to the difference of vowels, and, in Grimm especially, to their generation, as it were, from three original short vowels ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ). This generation is, I fear, a theory principally due to the imperfection of old alphabetic usages. My experience of uncultured man does not lead me to the adoption of any such simple theory, although, as already observed (51, a), like the theory of the four elements, it is of course based upon real phenomena, and still possesses some value. It is singular that Grimm compares this vowel triad to a colour triad of a curious description, and the means, (e, o), inserted between the extremes (i, a) and (a, u), to other colours, after an analogy which I find it difficult to follow, thus (op. cit. p. 33) :
$\left(\begin{array}{llll}\mathrm{i} & \mathrm{e} & \mathrm{a} & \mathrm{o} \\ \text { red } & \text { yellow } & \text { white } & \text { blue } \\ \text { ulack } \\ \text { (éi } & \text { ái } & \text { áu } & \text { au } \\ \text { orange } & \text { rose } & \text { azure } & \text { violet }\end{array}\right.$

These are mere fancies, unfounded in physics, ${ }^{2}$ based upon nothing but subjective feeling, and yielding no result. The qualitative theory which we now possess is entirely physical, depending upon pitch and resonance.
${ }^{1}$ See the remarkable instances from modern Sanscrit pronunciation ( $1138, b^{\prime}$. $1139, b$ ). Grimm curiously enough starts the conception that this transmutation (umlaut) had some analogy with the change of old S into later R (op. cit. p. 34, note).
${ }_{2}^{2}$ If we adopt the vibrational or undulatory theory of light, then there is this anal"gy between colour and pitch, that both depend upon the number of vibrations of the corresponding medium (luminous ether and atmospheric air) performed in one second. In this case red is the lowest, blue (of some kind) highest in pitch, green being medial. Now rowels, as explained on (1278, c), may be to a certain degree arranged according to natural pitch ; and in this case (i) is the highest, (a) medium, and (u) lowest. Hence the physical analogies of vowcl and light are (i) blue, (a)
green, (u) red, and I believe that these are even subjectively more correct than Grimm's, where white (presence of all colours) and black (absence of all colours) actually form part of the scale. But physically white would be analogous to an attempt to utter ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}$ ) at once, producing utter obliteration of vowel effect; and the sole analogue of black would be-silence! Again, even his diphthongs, considered as mixtures of pigments, are singular. With mixtures of colours he was of course unacquainted. The orange from red and yellow will pass, but rose from red and white (pale red), azure from white and black (grey), violet from red and black (dirty brown), are remarkable failures. Could Jacob Grimm have been colour-blind? Dugald Stewart, who rested much of his theory of beauty on colour, was himself colour-blind!

Weakening consists, according to Grimm, in "an unaccountable diminishing of vowel content" (dass zuweilen ohne allen anlass der gehalt der vocale gemindert wird, ibid. p. 541). The expression is entirely metaphorical, and is unintelligible without explanation. To Grimm, vowels have weight, (i) being the lightest, (u) the heaviest, and (a) intermediate, so that (a) may be regarded as a diminished ( $u$ ), and (i) as a weakened ( $u$ ) and (a). This, however, belongs to promutation, and he dwells chiefly on a vowel being " obscured" (getrübt) into some nearly related one, comparing ags. stäf, bäc, cräft; engl. staff, back, eraft; fries. stef, bek, kreft, where there is no transmutation. He finds a similar change of $a$ to 0 . He seems to confine the term weakening to these changes.

Breaking is introduced thus (ib. p. 32): "A long vowel grows out of two short vowels, but the confluence of two short vowels does not always produce a long one. For if the two short ones combine without doubling their length, but leave it single, they give up a part of their full natural short quantity, and, on addition, only make up the length of the single short quantity. These may be called broken vowels (gebrochene rocale), without particularizing the nature of the fraction. Assuming the full short vowel to be $=1$, the long would be $=1+1=2$; the broken $=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{4}+\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{4}+\frac{1}{4}$ $=1 . "$ And then in a note he has the extraordinary statement, quite upsetting all physical notions, and shewing the mere literary character of his investigations: "This breaking of vowels is like the aspiration of consonants"! (ibid. p. 33.) Grimm considers breaking mainly due to the action of a following $r, h$; his classical instances are Gothie bairan faúra, and, which are for us the most important, the ags. ea, eo, ie, from which he entirely separates ags. eá, eó, ié, considering the latter to be diphthongs having more than the unit length, and hence different from his broken vowels.

There remains quantity. "Yowels are either short or long: a difference depending on the time within which they are pronounced. The long vowel has double the measure of the short." (ibid. p. 32.) We are evidently here on the old, old footing, the study of booksnot speakers.

## ii. On Towel Quantity in Living Speceh.

The late Prof. Hadley rery properly blamed me, in reviewing the first and sceond parts of this work (down to p. 632), for not having paid sufficient attention to quantity as marked in Anglosaxon works, and especially in Orrmin. ${ }^{1}$ With this it is not now the proper place
${ }^{1}$ His critique, which appeared in the North American Revicw for April, 1870, pp. 420-437, has been reprinted in a volnme of " Essays Philological and Critieal, selected from the papers of James Hadley, l.L.D. New York, 1873," pp. 240-262. It was the carliest notice of my work in the English language, and contains the juilgmint of a profound schular, who had fairly studied the tirst four chapters, and
cursorily looked over the next two. He begins by giving an account of palaeotyp. He disputes some of my conclusions from my own data, and considers that long a could not have been broader than (xex), "at the opening of the sistecnth century," (p. 247), nor that long $u$ was substantially diffcrent from its present sound (p. 250). He confesses to "some fecling of doubt, if not skepticism," as to my "whole
to deal, but I would remark on the essential difference between the letter-length and the specch-length of vowels, consonants, and syllables. The sound of what is recognized as the same syllable lasts a longer or shorter time, according to the wish or fecling of the speaker. The difference of length does not change its dictionary significance, but occasionally (much less, however, than alterations of pitch and quality of tone, which usually accompany the various degrees of length), practically modifics its meaming considerably to the listener. And this syllabic length may be analysed, as already partly explained (1131, $d .1146, b$ ), into the lengths of the several vowels, the several consonants, and the several glides between these parts two and two. The length of the glides is usually thrown out of consilecration. But it is often a question to me how much is due to one and how much to the other. In received speech the so-called long vowels are all different in quality from the so-called short vowels; and hence when a Scotchman, for example, gives a short pronunciation to any of the so-called long vowels, in places where the sontherner uses his corresponding short vowel, which is altogether different in quality, the latter blames the former for pronouncing the southern short vowel long!

This connection of quality with quantity makes it difficult for a speaker of received pronunciation to determine the real length of vowel-sounds used by dialectal speakers. I find my own ear constantly at fault, and I have no doubt that many of my correspondents are not to be implicitly trusted in matters of quantity. But the length of the glides, the different action of voiced and voiceless consonants on preceding rowels, the holding and not holding of those consonants, and Mr. Sweet's rule for final consonants (1145, $d^{\prime}$ ), also materially interfere, not merely with practical observation, but with theoretical determination. In many cases, no doubt, our crude, rough way of indicating the quantity of a vowel as ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{aa}$ ), must often be considered as marking merely a temporary feeling due rather to the consonant than to the vowel. We have no standard of length, no means even of measuring the actual duration of the extremely brief sounds uttered. A long vowel in one word means something very different from a long vowel in another. In the case of diphthongs the lengths of the elements are entirely comparative among one another, and bear no assignable relation to the lengths of adjoining consonants or of vowels in adjoining syllables.
theory of labialised consonants," (p. 253). And he dwells on my short. comings with respect to quantity on pp . 259-262. Thus (412, $c^{\circ}$ ) ase is (aa se), but (ase) -he should have said (as)occurs (413, $a^{\prime}$ ). Of course the first should also be (a'so). On (442, $d^{\prime}$ ) we have (don) compared with (doon) below. The latter is correct, of course, and (miis'doon-) on (442, $d^{\prime}$ ) should. 1 think, be (misdoo'n). The (laa $\cdot \mathrm{vird}$, lav•erd, ded, forgiv', forgiv $\cdot$ eth, forgif--
ness), suprà, p. 443 , should probably be (laa verd, deed, forgii•v, forgii'veth, forgii•vnes). I am sorry to sec that (dead-litshe) for (déad-liitshe) occurs on (503, cd). Prof. Iladley subsequently did better than criticise; he supplemented my shortcomings, in a paper on Quantity, real before the American Philological Association in 1871, reprinted in the same volume, pp. 263295, of which I hope to give an account in Chap. XII.

With Englishmen diphthongs may be extremely brief, ${ }^{1}$ and short vowels may be pronounced at great length (as in singing) without altering the character and signification of the word. ${ }^{2}$

The length of vowels in received English is very uncertain. How far it is dialectally fixed I will not pretend to say. At times vowels are unmistakably lengthened, but this is not frequent. The two most careful observers on this point among my kind helpers are Mr. Murray for Scotch, and Mr. Hallam for Derbyshire, both of whom are acquainted with Mr. Bell's Visible Speech. Mr. Murray makes the Scotch sounds generally short, and occasionally long. But he remarks(Dialect of S. S., p. 97): "Absolutely short, or, as it might better be called, ordinary or natural, quantity in Scotch is longer than English short quantity, though not quite so long as English long quantity; but long quantity in Scotch is much longer than long quantity in English. Even in English, quantity differs greatly in absolute length; for though the vowelsounds in thief, thieves, cease, sees, are considered all alike long e (ii), thieves and sees are certainly pronounced with a longer vorwel than thief and cease. It would, perhaps, be most correct to say that Scotch long quantity is like that in sees, short quantity nearly like that in cease." Much here depends on the consonant; see also Prof. Haldeman's remarks (1191, a. 1192, $b^{\prime}$ ). Mr. Murray also observes that something depends in Scotch on the quality of the vowel itself; thus: "With ( $x$ ) and (a), and to a less degree with $(e)$ and (o), there is a great tendency to lengthen the short vowel before the mutes, and to pronounce egg, skep, yett, beg, bag, rag, bad, bog, dog, as (ææg, skææp, Jææt, bææg, baag, raag, baad, boog, doog)" (ibid. p. 98). Mr. Hallam, it will be seen, constantly takes refuge in medial quantities, lengths decidedly longer than the usual English short, and yet not decidedly long. Mr. C. C. Robinson occasionally does the same, and all dialectal writers who wish to represent quautity with accuracy meet with similar
${ }^{1}$ The old theory made diphthongs essentially long, as made up of two short vowels, yet they did not always "scan" as long, or influence the position of the accent as long, in ancient Greek. And Merkel, a German, says : that "syllables with true diphthongs have always a medial quantity, that is, not fully short, but not capable of prolongation, as otherwise they would lose their monosyllabic character," (Silben mit wahren Diphthongen sind stets mittelzeitig, d.h. nicht völlig kurz, aber auch nicht producibel, sonst geht die Einsilbigkeit verloren. Phys. Laletik, p. 322). His true diphthongs are (ai, áu, áy, ói, ón, óy, úi, y'í). Нe considers combinations like ( $\mathrm{Ei}, \mathrm{Eu}, \propto i$ ) to be "altogether and under all circumstances dissyllabic, and to bave no claim at all to be considered diphthongs" (ib. p. 125), which shews the effect of
native habits of speech on even theoreticians.
${ }^{2}$ Since beginning to write these remarks, I heard a man cry "Saturday," while speaking to a mate on the other side of the street. I was not able to determine the quality or quantity of the first vowel, though the word was repeated, and I thought it over for some time afterwards. Most persons would have written (se'trrdee) without hesitation, but this is merely the effect of old education, which tells them that the first vowel is short and the last long, and that ( $r$ ) is heard. I took refuge finally in (sah ah tede), making the first vowel medial, and the two next short and indistinct, though I could not determine their relative lengths, the (, t ) decidedly dental, the (d) not certain, the quality of the first rowel (ah) not satisfactorily fixed.
difficulties, which do not fail to occur in other languages also $(518, a)$. We are not properly in a condition to appreciate a pronunciation, which, like the ancient Sanscrit, Greek, and Latin, marked length so distinctly as to make it the basis of verse-rhythm, to the exclusion of alterations of pitch and force. ${ }^{1}$ At any rate, our own spoken quantities are very different from musical length, and the extreme variety of musical length which composers will assign to the parts of the same word at different times serves to shew to what a small extent fixed length is now appreciated. As regards myself, althongh I often instinctively assign long and short vowels in writing to different words, yet when I come to question myself carefully as to the reasons why I do so, I find the answers in general very difficult to give, and the more I study, the less certainty I feel.

That there are differences of length, no one can doubt. That those lengths are constant, either relatively or absolutely, cannot be affirmed. ${ }^{2}$ There is naturally a great difficulty in prolonging a sound at the same pitch and with the same quality of tone. Are vowel qualities ever purely prolonged? Does not the quality, as well as confessedly the pitch of spoken vowels, alter on an attempt to produce them? Are not all appreciably longer vowel qualities really gliding, that is, insensibly altering qualities, so that the commencing and ending qualities are sensibly different? Such combinations as Mr. Hallam's Derbyshire (íi, úu) may possibly rather belong to this category than to that of intentional diphthongs. If we were to examine carefully what is really said, we should, I think, have to augment the number of such phenomena considerably. The London (ee'j, oo'w) are cases of a similar kind. ${ }^{3}$ To retain the vowel quality for a sensible time requires an unnatural fixity of muscle, and consequently relaxations constantly occur, which alter the
${ }^{1}$ My short experience of Mr. Gupta's quantitative pronunciation of Sanscrit ( $1139, a$ ) makes me feel it highly desirable that the reading of Sanscrit, Arabic, and Persian quantitative verse, by learned natives, should be accurately studied. Italian and Modern Greek reading of classics leads to no result, because the true feeling for quantity has there died out. But it really prevails in the East. In France, some writers dwell much on quantity; others, like M. Féline, drop almost all expression of quantity, as in theexample, suprà p. 327. We have nothing in ordinary Southern English at all answering to the prolongations made by Mr. Gupta in Sanscrit, or Mr. Murray in Scotch. If persons really observe the relative time they employ in uttering Greek and Latin syllables, and especially unaccented long syllables, they will, I think, be struck by the great difficulty of constantly and appreciably exhibiting the
effects of quantity, so as to make them a guide to rhythm. This is more especially felt when numerous long syllables come in close succession, as in the following lines from the beginning of the first Satire of Horace:
Quî fit Mrecēnās, ut $n$ ēmō, quàn sibi sortem-
Contentus vivat? laudet diversa se-quentēs-
O! fortūnātī mercātōrēs, gravis annǐsContrā mercātor, nāvim jactantibus austrīs-
where the long vowel is marked as usual, the short vowel is left unmarked, and position is indicated by italicising the determining consonants.
${ }^{2}$ Not in such living languages as I have had an opportunity of examining, not even in Magyar, as I heard it, although its poets profess to write quantitative metres occasionally.
${ }^{3}$ See the remarks on suffraotures in iv. below.
vowel quality. Again, the preparation for the following consonant acts so strongly upon the nerves which are directing the formation of the vowel, that they cease to persist in the action, and insensibly modify it, producing other changes of quality, in a manner with which we are familiar as the action of a consonant on the preceding rowel. But it may be said, although these alter the quality as it proceeds, the ear recognises the intention to continue the original quality, and gives credit for its continuance. The credit is freely given in reccived speech, as judged by a received orthography. But in dialectal speech we have no such assistance. We have to treat the dialect as an unwritten language, and discover what is said without reference to orthography, that is, without reference to what learned men in olden time thought would be the most practical way of approaching to the representation of sounds of other dialects by means of symbols whose signification had been fixed by still older writers in totally different languages. This drires us at once from books to nature, which is very hard for literary men, but is, I believe, the only way of giving reality to our investigations. As long as we do not check literature by observation, as long as we continue to take the results of old attempts at representing observations, ${ }^{1}$ as absolutely correct, as starting-points for all subsequent theory, we lay ourselves open to risks of error sufficient to entirely vitiate our conclusions. Much harm has already been done in theoretically restoring the marks for long and short vowels in Anglosaxon, in printing diplomatically with theoretic insertions, in systematising an orthography which was not yet understood. ${ }^{2}$ Our real knowledge of the ancient lengths of these rowels consists in the analogies of other languages and the present changes. And these seem to be much affected by the already-mentioned difficulties of retaining the same quality of tone while endearouring to prolong the sound. But to obtain a real knowledge of long and short vowels, we shall have to study languages in which difference of length, independently of difference of quality, is significant, and in which quantity forms the basis of rhythms.

[^13]The net result for our present investigations on English dialects is that all quantities here marked must be taken as provisional, that too much weight must not be attributed to the separation of long and short, and that in general a certain medial length may be assumed, which, when marked short, must not be much prolonged, and when marked long, must not be much shortened. But allowances must always be made for habit of speech, for intonation and drawling, for the grammatical collocation of the word, ${ }^{1}$ for emphasis and accent or force of utterance, for "broadness" and "thinness" of pronunciation,-all of which materially influence quantity,-as well as for those other points of difficulty already dwelt upon, and many of which are characteristic of speech in different districts. But for the practical writing of dialects, we must continue to make a separation of short and long, if for nothing else, at any rate as an indication of glides (1146, $b$ ). When we write [meet•]=(mit), we seem to shut up the vowel too tightly, owing to the action of the consonant. This is not usual to the Scot, who says [m:eet] $=$ (mitt). Hence we hear the Scot say [mee-t]=(miit), and when he really lengthens, as in thieves (thiivz) $=[$ thee $\cdot \mathrm{vz}]$, we almost seem to want an extra sign, as $[$ th: $\cdot$ eevz $]=$ (thiilivz). For dialectal writing we do much if we keep two degrees, and use the long vowel really to mark a want of tightness in the glide on to the following consonant. The real value of our longs and shorts must not be taken too accurately. The writer had better give his first impression than his last, for the last has been subjeeted to all manner of modifying influences. We have simply nothing left like the quantity of quantitative languages.

## iii. On Vowel Quality and its Gradations.

The quality of a tone is that which distinguishes notes of the same pitch, when played on different musical instruments. It is by quality of tone that we know a flute from a fiddle, organ, piano, harp, trombone, guitar, human voice. Prof. Helmholtz diseovered that there exist simple tones, easily producible, ${ }^{2}$ but not usually heard in nature, and that the tones which generally strike the ear are compound, made up of several simple tones heard or produced at the
${ }^{1}$ Many English dialects, like Hebrew, lengthen vowels " in the pause," i.c. at the close of a phrase or sentence.
${ }^{2}$ A tuning fork gives nearly a simple tone; when held over a box of proper length, it produces a really simple tone. A $c$ tuning fork, struck and held over the opening of any cylindrical vessel, tumbler, jar, wide-mouthed bottle, about six inches deep, will produce the required tone. The vessel may be tuncd to the fork, by adding water to shorten it, and thus sharpen the tone, and by partly covering the aperture to flatten it. A jar thus tuned to $c$ may be easily tuned to the $a$ tuning fork below it, by still further covering the mouth. It is
interesting to observe how suddenly the resonance changes from dull to bright. Every one who wishes to understand the vowel theory should study the first and second parts of Prof. Helmholtz's ( 161, d) Die Lehre von den Tonempfindungen, 3rd ed., Braunschweig, 1870, pp. 639. A translation of this work into English is at present engaging a large portion of my time, and 1 hope that it will be published at the close of 1874 by Messrs. Longman, for whom I am writing it, under the title: On the Sensations of Tone as a physiological basis for the theory of music. It is onc of the most beautiful treatises on modern science, and is written purposely in a generally intelligible style.
same time. The relative pitches of those tones, that is, the relative numbers of complete vibrations of the particles of air necessary to produce them, made within the same time, are always those of the numbers $1,2,3,4,5,6$, and so on, 1 representing the pitch of the lowest simple tone, which the ear receives practically as that of the whole compound tone. The quality of the compound tone depends on the relative force or loudness of its component simple tones, and this relative force is dependent on the mode of production. Now, in the ease of the rowels, the mode of production resembles that of the French horn. In that instrument a hemispherical cup is pressed tight on the lips, which are closed. Wind is forced from the chest, opening the lips, which immediately close by their elasticity, assisted by the pressure of the rim of the cup, and this action being repeated with great rapidity, puffs of air come in regular succession into the cup or mouth-picee, and are transmitted through a small hole at the opposite extremity into a long tube ( 27 feet long nearly), the contents of which form a resonance chamber, which is naturally only able to resound to certain simple and compound tones. The puffs of the lips are not sufficiently rapid generally, on account of their want of elasticity, to produce the tones of the long tube itself, but they are able to set the air within it in motion, and the action of this confined air is powerful enough to make the lips vibrate properly. The tube can only give certain tones, dependent on the force of the impulse given by the lips; but by introdueing the hand and arm at the bell-like opening of the tube, the shape of the resonance chamber is altered, and new tones can be produced, not however so bright and distinct as the others. Now, in the human voice, a pair of elastie bands or chords, pressed elosely together in the larynx, serve the purpose of the lips, and produce the puffs of air, which pass through the upper part of the eartilaginous box (often nearly closed by its lid, the epiglottis) into a resonance chamber answering to the tube of the horn, ${ }^{1}$ which ean have its shape marvellously altered by means of the muscles contracting the first part or pharynx, the action of the uvula in elosing or opening the passages through the nose, and the action of the tongue and lips, which last much resembles that of the introduced hand and arm in the French hom.

There are, however, some essential points of dissimilarity between the two cases. Thus the resonant chambers in speech are small, and the resonance is not powerful enough to affect the vibrations of the vocal chords, so that the rapidity of the vibrations of these chords themselves determines the pitch and the full foree of tone, while the resonant chambers can only vary the relative force of the different simple tones which compose the actual musical tone produced. It is entirely upon this variation of foree that the different vowel effects depend, and, at the risk of being somewhat tedious, I shall venture to give some of the acoustical results, because they

[^14]have not yet found their way into philological treatises, and are of the highest philological interest.

Suppose that the puffs of air produced by the vibrations of the vocal chords produce a musical note of the pitch known as B flat, on the second line of the bass staff. Then (in a way explained by Prof. Helmholtz by means of some of the most recent anatomical discoveries of the construction of the internal ear, and numerous experiments on so-called sympathetic vibration), the ear really hears not merely 1. that simple B flat, but the following among other tones in addition to it, namely, 2 . the $b$ flat next above it, 3 . the $f^{\prime}$ above that, 4 . the next $b^{\prime}$ flat, 5 . the $d^{\prime \prime}$ above that, 6 . the octave $f^{\prime \prime}$ above the former $f^{\prime \prime}, 7$, a note a little flatter than the next $a^{\prime \prime}$ flat, 8 . the $b^{\prime \prime}$ flat above, 9. the next tone above $c^{\prime \prime \prime}, 10$. the octave $d^{\prime \prime \prime}$ of No. 5, 11. a tone not in the scale, a good deal sharper than $e^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat, 12. the octave $f^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$ of No. 6, 13. a tone not in the scale, somewhat flatter than $g^{\prime \prime \prime}, 14$. the actave of No. 7, a little flatter than $a^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat, 15. the major third $a^{\prime \prime \prime}$ above $f^{\prime \prime \prime}, 16$. $b^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat, the octave of No. 8, and so on, up to 24 or more, sometimes, in the human voice, especially when strained, where the numbers of vibrations in a second necessary to preduce the notes written, are in proportion to the simple numbers $1,2,3$, etc., of their order. These are the tones naturally produced on the B flat French horn. The mode of marking musical pitch just used is adopted pretty generally. The capitals C, D, E, F, G, A, B, denote the octave from the lowest note of the violoncello upwards. The small letters $c, d, e, f, g$, $a, b$, the next higher octave, beginning on the second space of the bass staff. The once-accented letters $c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}, e^{\prime}, f^{\prime}$, $g^{\prime}, a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$, the next higher octave, beginning at the note on the first leger line above the bass and below the treble staff. The other higher octaves begin at $c^{\prime \prime}$ on the third space of the treble staff; $c^{\prime \prime \prime}$ on the second leger line above the treble; and then $c^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$ is the octave to that again. The reader will therefore easily be able to write out the notes here referred to in ordinary musical notation. These are, in fact, the simple tones out of which the compound tone heard may be conceived as formed. But in ordinary speaking the vocal chards do not act so perfectly as in singing, and many very high and dissonant simple tones are also produced.

Now the effect of the differentlyshaped resonance chambers formed by placing the organs in the proper positions for the different vowels is to make some of these louder and some weaker, and the joint result gives us the vawel sensation. The shape or materials of the resonance chamber are quite indifferent. Hence it may happen that two or three different positions of the mouth may produce the same resonance. If so, they will give the same vowel. This is extremely important, bccause it shews that a prescribed position for a vowel is not necessarily the only pasition, but merely a known pasition, which will produce the required effect. It may also happen, that if a notation indicates a vowel by giving the form of its resonance chamber, two different symbols, though shewing different forms of that chamber, may denote the same vowel, because these different resonance chambers have the same resonance.

The resouance of a mass of air depends upon many conditions which are ill understood, and can be calculated only in a few cases. Generally it is determined by experiment. Prof. Helmholtz, Dr. Donders, and Dr. Merkel, with athers, have thus endeavoured to determine the resonance of the air in the mouth for the vowels which they themselves utter. If we really knew those resonances accurately, the vowels would be determined. But this is far from being the case. We must indeed consider that these gentlemen pronounce the vowels which they write with the same letters, in appreciably different manners, as the results at which they have arrived are materially different. Prof. Helmheltz, however, has practically applied his result to the artificial generation of vowels. By holding a reed pipe tuned to the $b$ flat just mentioned against a resonance box tuned to the same pitch, the result was a very fair (uu) ; changing the resonance box to one tuned an octave higher, to $b^{\prime}$ flat, the result was (oo) ; changing to a box tuned another actave higher, to $b^{\prime \prime}$ flat, the result was " a close $A$," perhaps (aah), while a box tuned a major third higher, to $d^{\prime \prime}$, gave "a clear A," perhaps (aa). He also obtained various grades of (ee, œœ, ce, ii), by using as resonance boxes glass spheres, into whose external opening glass tubes, from two to four inches long, were inserted, thus
giving a "double resonance." This is a rough imitation of what really takes place in speaking. His previous experiments lead him to believe that, for his own North German pronunciation of the rowels, there are single resonances, namely $f$ for (uu), $b$ flat for ( 00 ), $b^{\prime \prime}$ flat for (aa), and double resonances (the lower for the back part of the mouth and the throat, and the bigher for the narrow passage between the tongue and hard palate), namely, $d^{\prime \prime}$ and $g^{\prime \prime \prime}$ for (ee), $f^{\prime}$ and $b^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat for (ee), $f$ and $d^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$ for (ii), $f^{\prime}$ and $c^{\prime \prime \prime}$ sharp for ( (œœ), and $f$ and $g^{\prime \prime \prime}$ for (yy).

But Prof. Helmholtz went further,
and producing the series of tones just described ou a series of tuning forks, which were kept in motion by electricity, and placed before resonance boxes in such a way that he had complete command over the intensity of the resonance, he actually made them utter vowels. Let $p, m f$, $f, f f$, have their usual musical sense of piano, mezzoforte, forte, fortissimo, and indicate the londness of the notes under which they are placed. The notes are exactly one octave higher than those formerly described. The vowels corresponded to the different intensities of the tones of the forks thus:

| FORES | $b$ flat | $b^{\prime}$ flat | $f^{\prime \prime}$ | $b^{\prime \prime}$ flat | $d^{\prime \prime \prime}$ | $f^{\prime \prime \prime}$ | $a^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat | $b^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vowels <br> (uu) | $f$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (oo) | $m f$ | $f$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (aa) | $m f$ | $m f$ | $p f$ | $f$ |  |  |  |  |
| (EE) | $m f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $p$ | $f f$ | $f f$ |  |  |
| (ec) | $m f$ | $m f$ |  |  |  | $f f$ | $f f$ | $f f$ |

The vowel (ec) was not well produced, because it was not possible to make the small forks corresponding to the very high notes $f^{\prime \prime \prime}, a^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$ flat, $b^{\prime \prime \prime}$ flat, sound strongly enough, and still higher forks were wanted. For the same reason (ii) could not be got out at all. It would have required a much higher series of forks. The table shews at once that (uu) belongs to the low, (aa) to the middle, and (ii) to the high parts of the scale. The reader should, however, carefully remember that this table gives the relative loudness of the component simple tones only when the vowels are sung to the pitch $b$ flat, and that if this pitch is altered the distribution of the loudness would be changed, the resonance chamber remaining unaltered. It is merely by the natural recognition of the effects of resonant chambers of nearly the same pitch, reinforcing the component simple tones of the sound which lie in their neighbourhood, that vowels are really characterised. We need not, therefore, be surprised at the vagueness with which they are habitually distinguished.

If this reinforeement of certain tones
by the vowels exists in nature, the reinforced tones will excite some of the strings of a piano more than others. Hence the following striking and fundamental experiment, which every one should try, as it not only artificially generates vowels, but actually exhibits the process by which vowels are heard in the labyrinth of the ear, where an apparatus exists wonderfully resembling a microscopical pianoforte, with two or three thousand wires. Raise the dampers of a piano, and call out a vowel sharply and clearly on to the sounding-board or wires, pause a moment, and, after a slight silence giving the effect of "hanging fire," the rowel will be re-echoed. Re-damp, raise dampers, call another vowel, pause, and hear the echo. Clange the vowel at pleasure, the ccho changes. The experiment succeeds best when the pitch of one of the notes of the piano is taken, but the pitch may be the same for all the vowels. The echo is distinct enough for a room full of people to hear at once. The vowel is unmistakable; but, on account of the method of tuning pianos, not quite true.

A vowel then is a quality of tone, that is, the effect of increasing certain of the partial simple tones of which the compound tone uttered consists; and this augmentation depends on the pitch of the
note or notes to which the air inclosed in the mouth when the vowel is spoken will best resound. We canuot therefore be surprised at finding that vewel quality alters sensibly with the pitch or height at which the vowel is uttered. Thus on singing (ii).first to a high and then to a low pitch, the vowel quality will be found to alter consilerably in the direction of (ii), and as we descend very low, it assumes a peculiarly gruff character, which only habit would make us still recognise as (ii). In fact, the vowel differs sensibly from pitch to pitch of the speaker's voice, which also varies with age and sex, and other causes, so that what we call our vowels are not individuals, scarcely species, but rather genera, existing roughly in the speaker's intention, but at present mainly artificially constituted by the habits of writing and reading. When, therefore, these habits are of no avail, as in seientifically examining unknown languages and dialects, the listener fails to detect the genus which probably the speaker feels, and hence introduces distinctions which the latter repudiates. Also the habits of different sets of speakers become so fixed and are so different in themselves, that those of one set have possibly many vowels not corresponding to those of the other, and hence they either cannot appreciate them at all, or merely introduce approximations which are misleading. This is one secret of "foreign accents." We have agreed to consider certain vowel qualities as standards from which to reckon departures. But we are really not able to reproduce those standards, except by such an apparatus as Helmholtz contrived, and even then so much depends upon subjective appreciation, which is materially influenced by the non-human method of production, that real standards may be said not to exist. And we are still worse off in ability to measure the departures from the standard as shewn by the metaphorical terms we employ to express our feelings. Practically in each country we fall back upon "received pronunciation," and how much that differs from person to person, how little therefore it approaches to an accurate standard, has already been shewn in § 1 of this chapter.

A careful description of the positions of the tongue and lips in producing vowels is of great assistance ( $25, a$ ), and practically is sufficient, when reduced to a diagrammatic form (p. 14), to teach deaf and dumb children to pronounce with perfect intelligibility, as I have witnessed in children tanght by Mr. Graham Bell and Miss Hull ( $1121, c$ ). Hence the real importance of basing the description of vowels upon the positions of the organ most generally used in producing them. This is Mr. Bell's plan. The diagrams on p. 14 are rough, and curiously enough do not shew the closure of the nasal passage by the action of the uvula, so that the figures really represeut nasalised vowels. They give only

9 positions, manifestly inadequate. But each can be much raried. Thus, taking (e) as a basis, the tongue may be a little higher ( $e^{1}$ ), or lower ( $e_{1}$ ), and in any of the three cases the point of least passage may be advanced $(, e)$, or retracted ( $e$ ), thus giving $9\left(e, e^{1}\right.$, $\left.e_{1}, e, e^{1}, e_{1}, e,, e^{1}, e_{1}\right)$ forms to each position. Again, the cavity behind the least passage may be entirely widened (e), or widened only in front of the arches of the soft palate $\left(e^{2}\right)$, or only behind it $\left(e_{2}\right)$, or more in front than behind $\left(e^{2}\right)$, or more behind than in front ( $e_{2}$ ). Supposing then that the cavity had not been particularly widened before or in the primary positions, each one of the preceding 9 forms gives six $\left(e, e^{2}, e_{2}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{c}^{2}, \mathrm{e}_{2}\right)$, produced 6 times 9 ,
or 54 forms for each one of the original 9, and hence 9 times 54 or 486 forms altogether. Now on each of these, 5 different kinds of "rounding" may act, that is, contractions of the aperture of the mouth as for $(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u})$, or contraction of the arches of the palate, thus ( $e_{\mathrm{A}}, e_{0}, e_{\mathrm{a}}, e^{4}$ ), for some of which distinct signs are provided, thus ( $e_{0}=\partial, e_{0}=\infty$ ), or pouting the lips. This adds 5 times as many forms, giving 6 times 486 or 2916 shapes of the resonance cavity for the nine original positions, and these are far from all the different shapes of the resonance cavity producible without the aid of the nose. For example, the contraction of the arches of the palate may be itself of various degrees, and may be combined with each of the contractions of the aperture of the mouth, which may or may not be pouted. But if we merely add two kinds of nasality, the French and Gaelic, as (es, e $)$, we get twice as many additional forms, or, including the unnasalised, 3 times 2916, or 8748 forms, and these, as we have seen, are by no means all; but all these are easily written in palaeotype by the methods already described.
Of course these positions do not tell the result, but they tell how to get at the result, and in this way, as Mr. Bell expresses it, they produce Visible Speech, and his is the only system which does this systematically, - in the forms, as well as the conventional meanings, of his symbols. To diseover the results, we must make experiments on ourselves -taking care to be out of earshot of others, because of the uncarthly sounds we shall produce. It is best to take a good breath, and hold a familiar vowel,
such as (ii, aa, un) at the most comfortable pitch as long as possible unchanged. Begin with (ii), keeping lips very wide open. Next, keeping the position unchanged, try to change the vowel-sound by intention, and try to detect that you have not preserved your position when the vowel changes. Next begin (ii), and gradually, during one breath, alter the tongue, kecping the lips open. Next begin (ii), keep tonguc fixed, and alter lips gradually, closing to perfect closure, reopening with side openings, pouted lips, varying lips. The variations of vowel are wonderful. Do the same with (aa), and produce (oo) by rounding lips only. Next take (uu), observe the great difference of effect by moving the tongue only, and the effect of keeping the tongue still and opening the lips. Steady practice of the nature indicated will give not only great command of sounds, but great appreciation of those dialectal changes and affections of vowel-sounds with which we have to dcal. These are things impossible to appreciate on paper only. But it is a great advantage to the investigator that he has his own vocal organs always ready for experiment, and if he does not take advantage of this, he has no one but himself to blame for want of understanding. If children, actually deaf from birth, can be got to produce excellent imitations of the peculiar English vowels, distinguishing readily (i) from ( $i$, and (a) from ( $x$ ), as I have myself heard, there is no reason why those who can hear should not by similar training obtain much better results. All children should be taught to speak.

Now (ii) represents the effect produced with open lips, ${ }^{1}$ the middle of the tongue high, the phargnx narrow. It is a thin bad quality of tone for the singer, impossible on low notes, that is, its natural pitch, or the pitch mostly favoured by the shape of its resonance chamber, is so antagonistic to low notes, that its character is disguised, its purity "muddied," as it were, by lowering the pitch. This "muddying" is literally the German "trübung," and may be termed " obscuration."
${ }^{1}$ Lepsius (Standard Alphabet, 2nd ed. p. 54) says with "broad lips," meaning with a long transverse aperturc. This is not necessary. The corncrs of the lips should be kept apart, and the middle of the lips may be as widcly scparated as we please, and the wider the separation the clearer the (i).

Still, in quietly uttcring the series of vowels (i, e, a, o, u) before a glass, it will be scen that for (i) the lips form a narrowish horizontal slit, which opens wider for (e), and becomes comparatively vertical for (a), the corners being apart in all; then the corners come together for ( 0 ) and most for ( u ).

Again (uu) represents the effect produced with lips so nearly closed as to leave ouly a small central aperture, the back (not middle) of the tongue high, nearly as high as for ( $k$ ), and the pharynx narrow. It is a hollow round sound, extremely simple in character, that is, being almost a simple tone, and hence penetrating, but its pitch is naturally low, and it is impossible to sing without " muddiness" at high pitches.

These are evidently extreme positions. But (aa) is produced with lips moderately open, distinctly not rounded by closing the outer corners of the lips, a tolerably flat tongue, with the back not nearly so high as for (uu), and the pharynx open. It has a very complicated composition out of partial tones, and a pitch of moderate height, so that it accommodates itself even to high or low notes without much " muddying." Obscuration is most felt on the low tones which err on the side of (un); the upper ones err on the side of (ii), and make the vowel too "thin."

These three rowels (i, a, u) exist in perfection in the Italian, and possibly Castillian. They do not exist in great perfection in English. There, (ii) is frequently obscured, or has its quality deteriorated, by widening of the pharynx, desceuding to (ii), or, by slightly lowering the tongue, to (ee ${ }^{1}, e^{1}$ ). The (uu) is better, but also inclines often to (un), not, however, reaching (uuh). The (aa) rises to (aah), which is a bright sound, though inclining to the roughness of (ee), or else sinks to (aa), which is much duller, and has almost the effect of rounding. These are the tendencies in the cultivated received pronunciation. In the dialects we shall find both (ii) sinking and (aa) rising to (ee), and (aa) also sinking to ( $a a, 14$ ), and eren ( 00,00 ) ; while (uu) approaches ( 00 ) by a peculiar alteration of the lips, or arches of the palate, without the tongue, giving $\left(u u_{0}\right)$ or ( $u u^{4}$ ). These alterations correspond to the effects of Grimm's weakening, but weakening is hardly an appropriate term. If we consider the nature of the alterations, they are found to consist in modifying the resonance chamber, and hence changing its vowel effect, by raising or lowering parts of the tongue, by opening or still further closing and "rounding" the lips, and by widening the pharynx. To none of these can the term "weakening" well apply. But the (ii) sounds have a thin whistling effect, the (ee) sounds a rattling reediness, the (aa) sounds an open sonorousness, the (oo) sounds a round fullness, the (uu) sounds a hollow roundness, and we may consider that (ii) or (aa) degrades in passing to (ee), and (oo) in passing to (uu). The sounds (aa, oo), which differ only in the position of the lips, are the best sounds we have, and the passage of one into the other is on a level. It has been very frequently made in our dialects.

A slight alteration, however, matcrially affects the quality of the resonance. The qualities of the vowels ( $\propto$ \& © $\partial$ ) are rough.
${ }^{1}$ To understand the effect of vowel quality in music, sing a simple stave, as the first part of God save the Queen, first with the vowel (i) only, then with
(a) only, then with (u) only, and first at an easy pitch, then as high, and lastly as low as the voice will permit, with long sustained tones.

That is, the resonance earities, which are not well adapted for selecting good sets of simple tones, allow component tones to co-exist which more or less beat or grate, ${ }^{1}$ and the gencral effect is dull and unsonorous. Yet ( $\alpha$ a $\in$ ) are mercly ( $\left.\begin{array}{lll}\mathrm{u} & \circ & A\end{array}\right)$ with the lips open, and ( 0 ) is (ah) with the pharynx narrowed. Of these ( $\propto$ ) does not seem to occur even dialectally in English, but (e), I think, does. Both ( $a, a$ ) are frequent, and must be considered as obscurations of vowels for which the positions are nearly the same, such as (aa 0000 , ah, e e $\mathfrak{\infty}$ ). If Mr. Bell is right, ( $\boldsymbol{x}, \infty$ ) also frequently occur in the same capacity. Here ( $\mathfrak{r}$ ) is (u) with open lips, and ( $\infty$ ) is merely ( 0 ) with a lower tongue. All the flat-tongued mixed vowels ( $y, \partial, \infty$ ) have an obscure disagreeable quality of tone, but they are casy to produce in a lazy marner, and hence are very frequent in dialectal English. The qualities of ( $\mathbf{\varepsilon}, \mathrm{a}, ~ จ, \infty$ ), however, are so much alike, that I feel no certainty in separating them from one another and from (o). I follow my authorities in each case, but consider their conclusions to be provisional, and that the whole question awaits future judgment. These obscurations mainly occur during remission of accent or emphasis, and consequently they present themselves in far the greater number of English syllables. But the change of sonorous vowels occurs also in accented syllables.

Thus in dialects accented ( $\mathrm{i}, i, e, \mathrm{e}^{1}$ ) are all likely to be mixed together by the hearer, the real sound perhaps being sompthing different from all, or eren varying through all in different speakers or the same speaker at different times. Unaccented, they fall into ( $y$, ә).

Again, (e, $\mathbf{E}, æ$ ) are far from being well separated in accented syllables. No certainty can generally be felt respecting (e, e), and few care to distinguish ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathfrak{\text { ) }}$ ). When unaçented, all become (ə).

Again, ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{ah}, \mathfrak{x}, \mathrm{E}$ ), on the one hand, and ( $\mathrm{a}, a, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{o}$ ), ou the other, pass into one another when accented. Unaccented, all become (a). And not nnfrequently, when accented, they approach (a).

But ( $0, u$ ) more frequently interchange with (a), the former directly, the latter perhaps through (e), its delabialised form, or through ( $u_{0}$ ) or $\left(u^{4}\right)$, which strangely vary as $(0, \pi)$.

When one of the former in the group ( $i, i, e, e^{1}$ ), or in the group ( $e, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{x}, æ$ ), is replaced by one of the latter, the action is often called thickening or broadening, the pitch of the resonance chamber being lowered. The converse action, going from one of the latter to one of the former, is called thinning or narrowing, the pitch of the resonance chamber being raised. In the first ease the rowel is strongthened, in the latter weakened. But when any rowel of the first set fulls into ( $y$ ), or either set into (e, r ), it is obscured.

[^15]When one of the former is replaced by one of the latter in (a, ah, $\mathfrak{æ}, \mathrm{E}$ ), it is said to be thinned or narrowed; and when one of the latter is replaced by one of the former, it is said to be broadened, widened, thickened, flattened, etc. And the same terms are used when one of the former falls into one of the latter in $(a, a, \mathrm{~s})$ or $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{o})$. The effect of the "rounding" or shading by the lips is always to produce a sensation of thickness, because it disqualifies the mass of air within the mouth from resounding to the component simple tones of a higher pitch, and hence removes the brightness and fullness of the tone, and gives it a dull hollow character, which this term is meant to express.

The passage in the direction $(0, o, u)$ is also one of thickening, and $\left(u_{\mathrm{o}}\right)$ or $\left(u^{i}\right)$ is felt to be very thick indeed. When we come to ( n ), the tone feels lighter again. This arises from the disappearance of most of the component simple tones. The sound $\left(A_{n}\right)$, or a vowel produced by keeping the lips in the ( $\mathbf{u}$ ) position, and lowering the tongue to the (a) position, is the dullest possible (u). It is recognised by Helmholtz as the true type of ( $u$ ), becanse it leaves the mouth nearly like a sphere with a very small external aperture, and is the real extreme vowel. It possibly occurs dialectally, as do also, I think, ( $o_{u}, u_{1}$ ), and various other modifications of (u).

Any approach to ( $\mathfrak{\varepsilon}, \mathrm{a}, ~ \in, ~ ə \infty)$ from any quarter is recognised as obscuration. This, as already mentioned, apparently depends on a want of adaptation of the resonance chamber to qualities of tone which are free from beats.

It is thus seen that the effects described by all manner of theoretical terms depend upon the physiological action of the relative loudness of component simple tones, and the scientific study of the relations of rowel qualities is, like music in general, reduced to an investigation of the effects of altering the intensities of these same components. This it is beyond our present purpose to do more than indicate. But we see generally that thinness or hollowness depends upon a bad filling up of the componnd tone; the thin tones wanting force in the lower, and the hollow tones in the higher components. Thick tones seem to have several lower components strongly developed (as in the sesquialtera stop on the organ), and the upper comparatively weak. The obscure rough tones arise from beating components due to imperfection of resonance.

In ( $u_{\mathrm{o}}$ ) and $\left(\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{u}}\right)$ we seemed to have reached the acme of thickness, in (u) the components were almost reduced to the lowest simple tone, but, in consequence, the tone was not thin. If, however, the position of the tongne be slightly changed, so that it glides from the (u) to the (i) position, the lips remaining unchanged, a peculiar mixture of the hollowness of ( $u$ ) and thimess of (i) results, the German ( I ), or, with wider pharynx, the French ( $y$ ). Whether these sounds occur in our dialects or not is disputed. Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte inclines to $\left(\hat{F}_{1}\right)$ or $\left(\mathfrak{a}^{2}\right)$, which has not quite so high a position of the tongue as ( $y$ ). In either case the result is that of weakening ( $u$ ), although, for reasons which will appear in the next sub-number iv, I feel doubtful as to whether the replacing of (u)
by (y) or $\left(y_{1}\right)$, which occurs in Devoushire, Norfolk, and Scotland, is really due to this desire of thinning or weakening. In precisely the same way ( 0 ), by a still slighter alteration of the tongue to the ( $e$ ) position, produces ( $)$, which, on widening the pharynx, gires (œ). As (e) replaces ( $i$ ) in Scotch, one is not surprised to hear ( $\rho$ ) in place of (y) or $\left(\bar{J}_{1}\right)$, and Mr. Murray recognises (ə), or the French eu in peu, in his own dialect, rather than ( $y_{1}$ ), which lies between ev in peu and $u$ in $p u$. In point of fact this ( $\partial$ ) is a "weakened" (u) reduced to (o). The lips are opener, and the middle of the tongue is higher; but the quality of the tone is not only thinner, it is obscurer. That is, it approaches to that of (ə). When we get to (œ), this approach is still nearer, and few Englishmen, without study, distinguish ( $\partial, \partial$ ) and ( $x, \infty$ ), and many mix them all up together. In preciscly the same way, Frenchmen and Germans hear ( 0 , a) as $(ə, \infty)$. The $(\infty)$ is a still nearer approach. Yet in $(\partial, \Xi, \infty)$ there is no rounding of the lips. This is an example of how very closely approximating sounds can be produced by very different forms of the resonance chamber. The (œ) is supposed by Mr. Baird to occur in Devonshire, where it appears in the diphthong ( $\propto^{\prime} y_{1}$ ), an alteration of (óu), where first the ( $u$ ) is "thinned" into $\left(y_{1}\right)$, and then $(0)$ is by "attraction"-in fact by transmutation, owing to the preparation for $\left(\mathrm{y}_{1}\right)$-thinned or obscured, in fact palatalised, into (œ). It is possible that some speakers say (әə'y) or ( $\varnothing \infty^{\prime} y$ ), rather than $\left(\propto^{\prime} J_{1}\right)$. The diphthongs are probably due to different appreciations of intentionally the same sounds, as heard from different individuals and by different observers.

Finding such hovering sounds, we can no longer be surprised at an original distribution into three ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}$ ), in Sanscrit, at a subsequent development into five ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$ ) in the same language, which became eight in Greek (i, e, e, a, o, o, u, y). The separation of (e, e) and $(0,0)$ is, however, too fine for this stage, which practically reduces to six, (i, e, a, o, u, y), and this becomes seven by the addition of ( $\propto$ ), which must be held to include (a) on the one hand, and ( $\partial$ ) on the other. The rowel scale (I, E, A, O, U, Y, (E) practically includes all the "classes" of unnasalised sounds which are recognised, each clearly distinct from the other, and indicated, for convenience, by capitals. They form the "natural" classification, as distinct from any artificial one. But on going into details, we find many sounds which we cannot satisfactorily fit into any class, and other "transitional" sounds which lead the way from class to class. Thus let ( $i$ ) be developed and distinguished from (i). These two stages are by no means coexistent; for example, (i) has long been developed in English, but phonologists have only quite recently distinguished it from (i), Dr. Thomas Young having been one of the first to do so (106, $d$ ). Then ( $i$ ) at once leads on to (e), and the passage is rendered casier by the derelopment and distinction of (e), thus (i, $i, e, \mathrm{e}$ ). By a similar process ( E ) generated from (e), and first (ah) and then (æ) generated from (a), give the transition (e, E, æ, ah, a). Again, (a) developes first ( $a$ ), and then (A), in the direction of (0); for although the change from (a) to (o) is most
easy and rapid, yet when we come to hear the intermediate sounds, we reeognise the bridge as being ( $a, a, a, 0,0$ ), the ( 0 ) being on the one hand eonfused with (A), whieh is again confused with (a), and on the other with ( 0 ). The next bridge is ( $0,0, u, u)$. Then begins the shift of the tongue through the first series ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{a}$ ), and we have the bridge ( $y, ə, \ldots, æ h$ ). We have here very nearly reached ( $a$ ), whence ( $\infty, \partial, y$ ) lead up again to (i) through ( $i$ ). Thus we obtain a much extended rowel-scale, which may be grouped under the former seven heads, thus:
 This only gives 24 vowels out of our 36 . The peculiar $\left(u_{0}\right)$ or $\left(u^{5}\right)$, which would lie thus ( $o u_{0} u$ ) or ( $o u^{5} u$ ), and ( $5_{1}$ ) lying thus ( $\left.\begin{array}{l}J_{1} \\ \partial\end{array}\right)$, with several un-English varieties, are also omitted. Nany of the rest cannot be placed exactly linearly.

No linear form of expressing relationships of natural phenomena ever succeeds. The abore line does not shew the relation of (I) to (Y), or of (E) to (E) and (0), and in faet, if (ə) belongs to the family (E), of (E) to (A). This is partially accomplished by a triangular arrangement, much used, and very attractive, thus:

$$
\begin{array}{ccccc} 
\\
\mathrm{I} & \mathrm{E} & \begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{A} \\
\mathrm{E} \\
\mathrm{Y}
\end{array} & 0 & \\
& & & &
\end{array}
$$

We must remember, however, that the $(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I})$ and $(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U})$ limbs of this triangle are essentially distinct in mode of formation and effect, that the "means" ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{O}$ ) are really not on a level in respect either of quality or physiological position, and that the "extremes" (I, U) are still more diverse. Also the central stem, (E, Y), although necessarily attractive to Germans on aceount of their umlaut, is not a real mean between the limbs, as its situation would imply. Generally (Y) has the tongue position of (I) and lip position of ( U ), and ( E ) the tongue position of (E) and the lip position of ( 0 ), but ( $\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{O}$ ) have tongue positions, and ( $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{U}$ ) lip positions, of their own; and, taking resonance, we do not find the resonances of ( $\mathrm{Y},(\mathrm{E}$ ) compounded of the resonances of $(\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{U})$ and (E, O) respectively. Hence such an arrangement as

$$
\begin{array}{llllllll}
I^{\prime} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{~A} & 0 & \mathrm{U} & \mathrm{Y} & \mathrm{E}
\end{array}
$$

has even more significance.
The triangle has been greatly developed by various writers. Lepsius begius by comparing the vowel families to colours, but does not hit on exaetly the same relations as Grimm (1269, c), for, like the blind man who imagined scarlet to be like the sound of a trumpet, he makes (Standarl Alphabet, p. 47)

which, as before, misses the actual analogies between musical pitch and optical colour. The "indistinct vowel-sound from which, according to the opinion of some scholars, the other vowels, as it
were, issued and grem into individuality," which should be the undifferentiated roice ('h), he compares to grey, "which also does not belong to the series of individual colours;" docs brown?

This triangle Lepsius developes by scparating ( $\mathbf{E}$ ) into ( $e, \mathrm{e}, \mathfrak{e}$ ), $(0)$ into ( $0,0, \mathrm{~A}$ ), and ( E ) into ( $2, \infty, \mathrm{a}$ ), as I presume I may interpret his examples, because he distinguishes the last (a) from the "indistinct rowel," in which he seems to mix up ('h, e, ə). He thus gives, as "the complete pyramid of the European vowels,"
a
æ © A
e $\quad$ ® 0
$e$
i -

0
J
u
but he is very anxious to omit "the second row," and consequently proposes to identify the vowels in 1) English past, heart (aa), French mâle (aa), German that (aa, aa); 2) English hat (æ), French mal (a, ah), German hat ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{a}$ ); 3) English hut, fur (ə, a), Freuch heurter ( $\propto$, æh), German hörner (œ); 4) English naught, war (A), French cor ( 0 ), what, hot ( 0 ), French vote ( $0, o_{1}$, oh), German sonde ( $0, o$ ). Of course such identifications do not represent national habits. Lepsius's English rowels are given by the words 1 past, 2 heart, 3 hat, 4 head, 5 hate, 6 swear, 7 heat, 8 hit, 9 year, 10 hut, 11 fur, 12 naught, 13 hot, 14 war, 15 note, 16 borne, 17 hoot, 18 hood, 19 moor, which, judging from the values assigned to his symbols by German examples, and using ('r) for 'vocal $r$ ', seem to be considered as, 1 aa, aa, 2 a'r, 3 æ, 4 e, $\mathrm{E}, 5$ ee, 6 e'r, 7 ii, 8 i, 9 i'r, 10 玉, 11 œ'r, 12 AA, 13 A, 14 s'r, 15 oo, 16 o'r, $17 \mathrm{uu}, 18 \mathrm{u}, 19 \mathrm{u}$ 'r. Hence omitting the ('r), and disregarding quantity, and the confusions (a $a$, e e), Lepsius admits only ( $\mathfrak{a} æ e e \mathrm{i}$, a $\propto, ~ \AA \bigcirc \mathrm{u}$ ) as English rowels, disregarding ( $i, 0, u$ ), and recognising ( $\infty$ ).

But even this triangle does not suffice for the Slavonic and Wallachian relations, where two rowels are met with which Lepsius describes thus, in our notation for tongue aud lip position, taking the lip positions of (i, e, a) as three unrounded degrees of opening ( $1280, d^{\prime}$ ). In the first place his $u$ is ( $A_{u}$ ), "the tongue drawn back in itself, so that in the forepart of the mouth a carity is left," which agrees with Helmholtz's $u(1283, b)$, and may perhaps be considered as the German $u$, related to (bh) in the same way as the English $u$, with the back of the tongue raised, is related to (w). The tongue-position for Lepsius's $u$ is therefore that for our (a), ' the lipposition being the same as for our ( u ), and this is the meaning of

[^16]$\left(A_{n}\right)$. Then he makes $(y)=\left(i_{n}\right)$, but makes the Russian or or Polish $y$ $=\left(A_{i}\right)$, or $=\left(u_{i}\right)$ taking the $u$ he describes, ${ }^{1}$ and $(\infty)=\left(e_{o}\right)$, but the Wallachian $\check{a}$, ete. $=\left(o_{e}\right)$. He would therefore arrange his triangle thus:
a

which is very pretty, if correct. But Prince L. L. Bonaparte, as will be presently seen, identifies the Wallachian sound with $(⿷)=$ $\left(A_{a}\right)$, being delabialised ( $A$ ), which would have the tongue lower and the lips opener than $\left(o_{e}\right)$, the real representative of ( $x$ ). Between ( $x, \ldots$ ) the difference is not really very great, yet, if I am right in my appreciation of the Forest of Dean sound of ur as (EEE), it is very sensible. The Russian sound has been hitherto treated in this work as (y), and the Prinee, being familiar with this sound before he heard the Welsh $u$, which seems to $=(y)$, felt the connection to be so great, that he at first confused them, and afterwards conuected them, as Bell did $(y, r)$. But he reeognises a guttural character about the Russian sound, which is absent in the Welsh. For a long time I have entertained the same opinion, and hence, on the principle of ( $1100, d^{\prime} .1107, c$ ), I represent it by $\left(\mathrm{x}_{2}\right)$, thereby maintaining an elevation of the flat tongue and a widening of the pharynx behind the arches of the palate, which gives my sensations when attempting to reproduce the sound. In this case, however, the prettiness of Lepsius's triangle is somewhat deteriorated, and it becomes:
a

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |

Brücke, ${ }^{2}$ unable to accommodate all the vowels which he recognises in one triangle, or as he, with most Germans, terms it "pyramid," constructs four such. The first seems to be:

|  |  |  | E |  | $a$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| i | $e$ | e |  | $æ h$ |  | 0 |  |
| I |  |  |  |  | y | $\circ$ |  |

in which, instead of a central stem, there is a central triangle. These are eonsidered to be all the "perfectly formed " vowels, and Englishmen will notice that some of their most familiar vowels ( $i æ ə \mathrm{~A} \supset u$ ) are absent. These are partly provided for in another scheme of "imperfectly formed" vowels, - the "imperfeetion" existing, of course, only physiologically in Dr. Brücke's own at-

[^17]perpendicularly, so as to leave a cavity between this point and the teeth." This is not quite the same, because for (A) the tongue is simply laid down and back in the lower jaw, but the second description implies some connection between the tip of the tongue and the coronal point of the palate.

2 See p. 16 of his tract: Ueber eine new Methode der phonetischen Transseription, Wien, 1863, pp. 65.
tempts at pronouncing them. Each one of the above vowels has its "imperfect" form, giving the following pyramid, where (?) represents a sigu used by Dr. Brücke, of which he gives no explanation beyond such as is furnished by its locality:


The other two pyramids are merely the nasals formed by adding (A) to these signs. The relations between the ordinary vowels, where all nasal resonance is cut off by closing the entrance to the nose with the uvula, and the nasal vowels, where this entrance is opened, are not so completely understood as could be desired. The forms ( $a_{6}$, as) indicate that the tongue and lips are in the position for (a), but that the uvula is very differently situate, and this, even if the entrance to the nose were cut off by other means, would essentially modify (a) by the opening out of the upper portion of the pharynx, introducing a new resonance chamber, and by the flapping about of the soft uvula. How far the resonance can be affected by stiffening the uvula, or making the entrance to the upper part of the pharynx more or less open, or by some internal action on the membranes of the nasal passages, is not known, has in fact scarcely been studied at all. The two kinds of "nasality" indicated by affixing ( ${ }_{1}$ ) or ( $\Lambda$ ) to an ordinary vorrel-symbol, and the choice of that vowel, are altogether uncertain, as indeed is shewn by the rarious opinions expressed regarding such well-known sounds as the French nasals.

Prof. Haldeman (op. cit. 1186, d., art. 369) endearours to combine all these rowel-sounds in a single triangle with a central core. See his English rowels, suprà pp. 1189-93. The ? in this triangle marks doubtful identificatiou with his vowel-symbols, but a brief key is added.


Prof. Whitney, as will be seen in the latter part of No. 7, makes the
triangular arrangement with central stem an instrument for shewing the relations between vowels and consonants.

The conception of a double triangle has been united with that of a central stem by Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte. Omitting the nasals, and some other signs, such as (oh oh $\mathrm{u}_{1}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} j i^{1}$ ), which tend somewhat to obscure the general symmetry, as the complete form will be given on p . 1298, the following is in principle the Prince's double triangle, in palaeotypic characters.


On comparing these arrangements with Bell's (p. 15), it will be seen that the inner triangle corresponds gencrally to 'primary' and the outer to 'wide' forms, and that in the central stem, the righthand column is 'primary,' and the left-hand 'wide,' while the only 'rounded' forms are all those in the classes ( $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{E}$ ). But to carry out this last restriction, apparently, the forms ( $\partial, \infty, \infty, \mathfrak{\varepsilon}$, oh, $ఐ$, ©), which have to me all more or less a tinge of the (CE) quality, and which are practically constantly confounded together and with those here assigned to the ( E ) family, are given to the (A) family. The great peeuliarity of this triangle, however, consists in not terminating the (A E I) and (AOU) limbs by the typically closest positions of the series. It will be seen that the first terminates with ( $y \mathrm{r}_{2}$ ), and that the series then extends along the base, through ( $i \mathrm{i}$ ), where the closest position is reached, to the labialised central core ( I ), where the palato-labial series commences. And the second limb terminates with ( $u u$ ), which again are not so close as ( $\mathfrak{u}^{1} u^{1}$ ), and these go on to ( v$)$, which is almost on the central core, and leads up to ( y ), where the labial series is palatalised, and the palato-labial series commences on this side, and so on to (r). Hence the base of the triangle would probably be best represented by two curves sweeping from $\mathbf{I}$ to $\mathbf{Y}$, and from $\mathbf{U}$ to $\mathbf{Y}$, where they unite, and proceed in a rertical line through $\mathbf{E}$ to $\mathbf{A}$, and then $\left(i, u^{1}\right)$ would be outside, and ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ', v ) just iuside, so that the 'wide' and 'primary' vowels would be kept distinct. By drawing these lines on the printed scheme, together with the limbs $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{E I}, \mathbf{A} \mathbf{O} \mathbf{U}$, a better conception of this extremely ingenious arrangement will be obtained.

This double triangle, with central stem and curved base, exhibits the relation of vowel gradations in a very convenient form, and may help many readers to a better conception of certain "intermediate" forms, than any long physiological description of the forms of resonance chamber by which they are produced. The
identifications of the Prince's symbols with palaeotype are practically his own, with the exception of ( $\mathrm{E}_{1}$ ), which is a theoretical intermediate form, for which he has given no key-word, but see ( $1108, a$ ). That the forms with $\left({ }^{1}{ }_{1}\right)$ precisely represent the same as are produced by the physiological actions these signs were introduced to symbolise ( $1107, a^{\prime}$ ), may be sometimes doubtful. Nevertheless, for a study of rowel relations, this triangle, here printed from the Prince's unpublished papers, is of more material value than any of the other triangular arrangements which have been cited above, though they all serve more or less accurately to shew the subjective relations of the vowels by which the changes have been generally estimated. But the real causes of the changes are certainly to be sought in the relations of position of tongue, lips and pharynx, and the more or less careless habits of speakers in assuming definite relations, dependent upon the ease with which approximations to definite position, and hence quality of tone, are appreciated. This readiness of appreciation, or perhaps of confusion under one conceived genus, is due, probably, to the necessarily wide varieties in the qualities of tone usually identified by the speaker himself, which arise from difference of pitch, already mentioned, and emotional modifications. It must be remembered, however, in this connection, that what one nation, or tribe, or clique, is in the habit of confusing, another is in the habit of distinguishing. To an Englishman it is indifferent how he modifies his pitch in speaking, to a Chiuese such modifications are all important.

All such changes from a rowel in one part of the scale, to another not far remote on either side, may be called gradations (1281, d), and we may say that a rowel thus replaced is gradaterl, a general term, avoiding the usual metaphors of weakening, strengthening, etc., or even degradation.

It must not, however, be supposed that dialectal speakers are indifferent to their rowel qualities. Each speaker is tolerably clear about the matter, till he is questioned, and then, like the educated speaker, he becomes bewildered or doubtful. Also, in using his words in different collocations, he unconsciously uses different sounds. Also, when the listener attempts to give him back his sound, almost certainly incorrectly, the native speaker is apt to acknowledge as identical what are really different, or to find immense differences where the listener felt hardly an appreciable distinction. Again, dialectal speakers vary greatly from one another, when the finer forms of elements are considcred. The investigator generally knows but few. Hence he is apt to be deceived. Are we to suppose that the great varieties of Early English spelling are due simply and always to carclessness or ignorance? My dialectal experience leads me to think that much may be due to difficulties of appreciation and varieties of pronunciation, and that some of the best spelling, by the most careful men, such as Orrmin and Dan Michel, even when consistent (which, as we know, is not always the case), may give sharp subjective distinctions, and may contain accommodations to alphabetic resources, which are not correct as real representatives of the language spoken. My own personal experience of phonetic
writers, during many years, leads me to a similar conclusion. For older hired scribes, who wrote before the inauguration of a mechanical system of spelling, to settle all questions by an iron rule, and while letters really represented sounds to an appreciable extent, another cause may have acted. They wrote much from dietation, or when they wrote from 'copy,' they transferred the word into sound in their heads, and they were so slow in forming the letters that they laboured an analysis of the sound as they went on. This naturally varied as they used the word after intervals or in different connections. It does so with every one ; this is the mere outcome of experience. But with the old scribe the result was a corresponding alteration of spelling. The word was considered in isolation, hence its rhythmical or rhyming qualities did not enter into consideration. The analysis was uncertain, hence it altered. It was tinctured by the local habits of the scribe, with whom, therefore, the spelling changed also in generic character. The point least thought of was the general habit of pronunciation, because it was really unknown, and there was no early standard. It seems to me that very much of the varieties of our early MSS. can be thus accounted for, and some puzzling, but not frequent, groups of letters satisfactorily explained.

The net result then for our dialectal examples is that only class changes can be tolerably well ascertained, such as (I) into (E), (A) into (E), (A) into (0), (E) into (A), (0) into (A) or (U), (U) into (O) or (Y), and all into ( E ), iueluding (o). Unmistakable instances of all these will be found, but whether they are due to the feelings of weakening, thiekening, narrowing, broadening, obscuration, or to physiological relations of the parts of speech, or, as I am often inelined to think, to hereditary and imperfect imitations of fashions for some unknown reasons assumed as models, does not seem to be determinable with our present very limited stock of knowledge. Alterations stated to occur within elasses, orthoepical distinctions of ( $\mathrm{i}, i$ ), of $(e, \mathrm{e})$ or (e, E ), of (ah, a, a), of ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{\rho}, \mathrm{o}$ ), of $(0, o)$, of $\left(u_{\mathrm{o}}, u, \mathrm{u}\right)$, of $(5, \partial)$, of $(\partial, \infty)$, of ( $(\mathfrak{a}, \infty, \mathfrak{e}, ə)$, are all extremely doubtful. When exhibited in phonetic writing, they must be taken on the word of the investigator as the best distinctions he was able to make at the time, to be corrected when his "personal equation" is known. Experience, gathered from myself and others, has convinced me that opinions alter widely, and within short interrals, while listening to repeated utterances of the same speaker, as to the precise shade of sound heard. Hence I consider that it would be premature to draw absolute conclusions from them. We know in France and Germany that much confusion as to ( $(, \infty)$ preaails. The French distinguish ( $\mathrm{e}, e$ ) sharply, and so do the Italians. The French also distinguish ( 0,0 ), but the Italians have ( $0, u \mathrm{~h}$ ) in their place. ${ }^{1}$ All this is easy when we have written documents and much

[^18]$(0, o)$ in French and ( $0, u \mathrm{~h}$ ) in Italian as ( $o_{1}, o$ ) in both. It is certainly sufficient for intelligibility to make the distinctions (e, $e ; 0, o$ ) in both, and

## discussion. Both fail for our dialects, where a strict consideration of sound is quite in its infancy.

most probably individuals in different localities, even of the highest education, differ materially as to the precise distinction they make, and believe most firmly that their own habits are universally adopted by received speakers.

Since the abore note was in type, I have had a curious confirmation of the correctness of this conjecture. Mr. Henry Sweet informed me (6th Feb., 1874), on his return from Holland, where he had had an opportunity of examining the pronunciation of Dr . Donders, Prof. Land, and Prof. Kern, to whom I have had occasion to allnde at length ( $1102, e^{\prime} .1109, d^{\prime}$ to $1110, e^{\prime}$. $1114, b)$, that they have each different pronunciations, and that each considers his own not only the correct, but the general pronunciation. The following notes, with which he has furnished me, are interesting, not only in this respect, but in reference to the passages just cited. The letters D, L, denote Donders and Land, and when they are not used, the pronunciation is general. $a=(\mathbb{E}, \mathrm{a})$; ( E ) [or, as Mr. Sweet's pronunciation sounded to me, (a)] before (1), otherwise (a).
$a a=(, \mathrm{aa})$, as in Danish, maan ( $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{aan}$ ). $e=(\mathrm{E})$, bed (bet), sometimes (æ), gebed (ghəbæ•t), D only.
$e e=(e e) \mathrm{L}$, (ééi) D ; been (been) L, (beein) D , the diphthong quite distinct.
-eer $=($ eer $) \mathrm{L},($ eer $) \mathrm{D} ;$ meer (meer) L , (meer) D, so that L follows English use.
e unaccented $=(\partial)$, de goede man (də ghu'ja man). The $d$ between two rowels often becomes ( $\pi$ ) or ( J ) ; Leyden is ( $\mathrm{LeJ}_{\mathrm{E} \cdot} \cdot$ ), the first ( E ) runming on to the (J) as a diphthong, the final $n$ being dropped as usual. This final $-e$ is always pronounced when written, except in cen, één, een man, cene vrour, ééne vrouc, (ən-man', on-rróu, een rróu).
$i=\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{l}}\right)$ or $\left(c^{\mathrm{l}}\right)$, Scotch $\grave{2}$, unaccented often ( $\partial$ ), twintig (tbhe ${ }^{1}$ n'takh).
$i e=(\mathrm{i})$ short, except before $r$, niet (nit), bier (biir).
0 , from original $0,=(0) \mathrm{L},(0) \mathrm{D}$; slot (slot) L, (slot) D.

0 , from original $u,=\left(\Lambda_{0}\right)$ L, Danish $a a,(o) \mathrm{D} ; b_{0} k\left(\mathrm{~b} \mathrm{~A}_{0} \mathrm{k}\right) \mathrm{L},(\mathrm{bok}) \mathrm{D}$.
$o o=(o o) \mathrm{L}$, (óou) D, boom (boom) L, (bóroum) D.
oor $=$ (oor) L, (oor) D, boor (boor) L, (boor) D.
$u=\langle\partial, \rightsquigarrow, \partial \mathrm{h}), d_{u n}=(\mathrm{d} \partial \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{d} \geqslant \mathrm{hn})$. $u u=(\mathrm{r})$, mimunt (minr $\cdot \mathrm{t}$ ), zuur (zirr). $e u=(\not \partial) \mathrm{L},\left(\not \partial \jmath^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{D}, n e u s=(\mathrm{n} \not \partial \mathrm{s}) \mathrm{L}$, ( пコ'is) $^{\text {D. }}$
eur $=$ (œœr) L , (әər) D , deur $=$ (ducor) L, (dər) D.
$a a i=$ (áai).
$e i, i j=\left(\mathrm{E}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}\right)$. Prof. Kern, a Gelderlander, makes $c i=\left(E^{\prime} i\right)$ and $i j=($ ah'i $)$ [see Dr. Gehle's pronunciation (295, c)]. La artificially distinguishes (ei) as (E'i) and $\ddot{i j}$ as ( $\mathrm{e}^{1^{\prime} \mathrm{i}}$ ), probably learned in Friesland; in ordinary speech be makes both ( $\mathbf{E}^{\prime}$ i).
aau, ou= (o'u) L, (óu) D, blaauw (blón) L, (blóu) D, koud (ko'ut) L, (kónt) D.
$u i=(\partial \mathrm{h}$ ' $w$, əh'i), huis (нhəh'wjs), lui (lah'i), final. The (oh) is slightly more guttural than in the English err. [Dr. Gehle said (rhe'ys), at least such was his intention, compare the Deronshire diphthong below, No. 10, subdialect 41 ; Mr. Iloets, from the Cape of Good Hope, was satisfied with ( $e^{\prime i}$ ), as in French wil.]
$w=(\mathrm{bh}), v=(\mathrm{r}), f=(\mathrm{f})$, uat vat fut (bhat rat fat) ; $w$ and $v$ are always distinct, $v$ is often whispered ( $' v$ ), and appears sometimes to be made voiceless $(\hat{i})$, so that it is confused with $f$ (in Amsterdam). Land's slagconsonant or explosive ( B ) [at which Donders was equally surprised with myself $(1103, b)]$ is made by drawing the under lip orer the upper teeth so as to corer the interstices without touching the upper lip at all ; if the upper lip is touched, the effect is too near to (b). It is peculiar to Land, who, however, hears it always both in Dutch and German. [Neither L nor D hear North German $w$ as ( 5 ), although identified with (v) by Lepsius and Briicke. Neither Mr. Sweet nor myself have heard (v) from any German. Prince L. L. Bonaparte has recently heard an old Dutch retainer call $v$ ('v) and $w(b h w)$.]
$z$ is often whispered ('z).
$r$ is strongly trilled, either with point of tongue (.r) or urula ( $x$ ).
$g$ is pronounced quite soft ( $(\mathrm{gh}$ ) by good speakers, the trilled (grh) is vulgar.
$l$ is more guttural than palatal, like the English and Scotel $l$ [i.e. more near to ( 1 w ) than ( lj ), or rather ( l ) than ( 11 )].

The kindness of Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte enables me to furnish one of the most remarkable examples of vowel appreciation and classification which has ever been published. The Prince, during last winter, as the outcome of his phonetic studies pursued during many years, with unprecedented facilities for hearing varieties of pronunciation, drew up a scheme of vowel and consonant classification. To the vowel scheme he appended a list of all the vowel-sounds which, so far as he could appreciate, existed in each of forty-five European languages. At my request, and purposely for the present work, he verified his appreciation by giving in each language a word containing that vowel-sound, together with its meaning, serring to identify it. He has thus constructed the most extensive series of key-words ever attempted, and has furnished a means of arriving within comparatively narrow limits at the meaning of the palaeotypic symbols. Of course there will be no absolute identity. First there is his own personal equation in observing, next there is that of another observer, and these may cause so great a divarication that the identification may be disputed in many cases. I have found several in which I do not appreciate the distinctions of sound in precisely the same way as he does. Still the limits of difference are in no case very great, and their very existence is important in relation to the gradation of vowels when appreciated qualitatively.

In order to make this remarkable work more valuable for philological purposes, I have arranged it as follows. First, on p. 1298, I give the Prince's complete triangle, of which there is an extract on $p$. 1289. As it was impossible to use the Prince's own symbols, many of which have never been cut as types, I have confined myself to giving the numbers in his list. Hence, whatever may be thought of the palaeotypic equivalents afterwards added, each vowel can be immediately identified as B 1, B 2, etc., B indicating Bonapartean, and thus referred to in any English or foreign treatise. For trpographical reasons I have, as before, omitted the sloping lines of his triangle. These may be readily supplied thus: by drawing lines from $\mathbf{A}$ at the top, through $\mathbf{E}$ to $\mathbf{I}$, through $\mathbf{O}$ to $\mathbf{U}$, and through $\boldsymbol{E}$ to $\mathbf{Y}$. The first two lines separate the primary and wide vowels. The two uprights between the two horizontal lines should be parallel to the other two, and point to 35 on the left, and 62 on the right. The vertical lines inclosing $67, \mathbf{Y},(65,66)$ and the horizontal lines, are correct. The capital letters $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{O}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{E}$, indicate the classes, the limits of which are clearly marked by these lines.

Next follows a linear list of the 75 sounds entered as vowels in the above triangle, in order of their numbers, with their palaeotypic equivalents. Except for $5,9,12,22,26,30,36,38,39,47,52,56$, $59,60,61,62,63,66,73,74,75$, these equivalents were furnishel by the Prince himself, and hence indicate his own appreciation of my characters. Of these 5 is determined by the Danish example after Mr. Sweet to be (a). Then 22 is the ( $\mathrm{E}_{1}$ ) already mentioned ( $1290, a$ ). Number 36 is only exemplified by an indeterminate unacecnted Scotch vowel, scarcely distinguishable from (i); but, as

Mr. Murray considers it nearer to (i), the Prince has made it intermediate to ( $i, \mathrm{i}$ ), and I have used ( $i^{1}$ ) as the symbol, where the greater closeness (1107, b), indicated by ( ${ }^{2}$ ), refers rather to the width of the opening of the pharynx than to the height of the tongue. Number 56 is identified by a Swedish sound, which seems to be best indicated by $\left(\mathrm{u}_{1}\right)$. The English and Icelandic examples of 61 sufficiently identify it with (' $w$ ). Perhaps 62 , which is only identified in Swedish, is not quite properly represented by ( $u^{1}$ ), but its position in the triangle leads me to that symbol. A similar doubt hangs over 63, ( $\mathbf{u}^{1}$ ), identified only in Lap and Norwegian. As to 74 and 75 , the systematic character of the Prince's symbols leads me to think that ( $\propto^{1}, \otimes^{1}$ ) are probably correct, especially as the latter is also identified with the Scotch ui in guid. Here (a ${ }^{1}$ ) is the sound I have bitherto written $\left(y_{1}\right)$. With regard to the other numbers not identified with palaeotype by the lrince himself, they are all nasals or semi-nasals, formed on bases already identified, and hence have been written by adding (1) or ( $)_{6}$ to the palaeotypic equivalents of those bases. These additional symbols hare been all approved by the Prince, but some doubt necessarily remains as to the correctness of the physiological identification, in which, however, he is not much interested, and rery probably some will have to be altered hereafter. Thus ( $25 e_{1}, 46 o_{1}, 55 o^{1}$ ) were identified by the Prince with sounds which Mr. Sweet writes ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{o}}$, $o_{u}$ ) respectirely; see the Danish vowels, language 40, below. It is almost impossible that ears attuned naturally to English and foreign sounds respectively should agree on such minute points.

The numbers in the first column in this list refer to the numbers of languages in the list beginning on p. 1300, in which the sound has been identified with that used in a given word. Taking the identificatious to be tolerably correct, these numbers give a very remarkable result. At the end is given after the sign ( $=$ ) the number of the languages in which each vowel-sound has been identified. Collecting these results, and considering 'l, 'r, as two additional vowels, we find in

|  | ges. the |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $15 \mu, 17$ "h, 19 əh, $22 \mathrm{E}_{1}, 24 \mathrm{e}$ 42 oh, 44 ah, $45 \mathrm{o}_{1}, 53$ oh, 73 o $=10$ vowels. |
| 1 | 2 a, $\overline{\text { a }}$ а, 6 ah, 9 ๕., 10 ๕, 11 e, $12 \propto, 13$ ฉ, $14 x, 21$ ๔, $36 i^{1}$, 38 i , 59 uc, $^{2} 62 u^{1}, 64 \mathrm{v}, 68$ æh, 70 2ha, ' $1=18$ vowels. |
| 2 |  |
| 3 | $\begin{aligned} & 47 \text { or, } 50 \text { oh, } 67 \mathrm{I}, 74 \aleph^{1} \text {, 'r }= \\ & \text { vowels. } \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $20 \begin{aligned} & a, 39 \text { is, } 60 \text { us, } \\ & \text { vowels. }\end{aligned} 752^{1}$ |
|  | $3 \mathrm{as}, 23 \mathrm{E}, 46 \mathrm{o}_{1} \mathrm{~A}, 54$ uh vowels. |
|  | $1_{1}^{1}, 550^{1}$ $31 \mathrm{e}^{1}, 32$ |

Languages. the vowels
869 oh $=1$ vowel.
$10 \quad 8 æ=1$ vowel. $1135 i, 43 \mathrm{~A}=2$ vowels. $12 \quad 72 \partial=1$ vowel. $13 \quad 71 \propto=1$ vowel. $14 \quad 16$ ' $\mathrm{h}=1$ rowel. $15 \quad 490=1$ rowel.
$2065 \mathrm{y}=1$ rowel.
$21 \quad 510=1$ yowel.
$24 \quad 29 \varepsilon=1$ rowel.
$25 \quad 28 \mathrm{e}=1$ rowel.
$27 \quad 46 o_{1}=1$ vowel.
$33 \quad 25 e_{1}=1$ vowel.
41 18 $h=1$ rowel.
$4258 u=1$ vowel.
$43 \quad 1 \mathrm{a}=1$ vowel.
$44 \quad 37 \mathrm{i}=1$ vowel.

It appears then that 60 out of the 77 vowels, including ('l, 'r), recognised by the Prince, occur each in less than 9 languages, and only each of 17 occur in 10 or more languages. These 17 are consequently those to which attention must be chiefly directed. In order of the number of languages in which they occur, shewn by the figures placed after the letters, they are-

| $37 \mathrm{i}, 44$ | 28 e, 25 | $71 \propto, 13$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1 \mathrm{a}, 43$ | $29 e, 24$ | 72 2, 12 |
| $58 \mathrm{u}, 42$ | 510,21 | $35 i$, ) 11 |
| 18 'h, 41 | $65 \mathrm{y}, 20$ | 43 s, \} 11 |
| $25 e_{1}, 33$ | $49 \mathrm{o}, 15$ | $8 æ, 10$ |
| $46 o_{1}, 27$ | 16 'h 14 |  |

From these we may reject ( $18{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ ) as not being generally considered a rowel at all, because not "voiced," " and ( 16 ' $h$ ) as undifferentiated voice, which is therefore not usually put among the vowels. It would be in accordance with the habits of many phonologists to consider ( $4 \mathrm{a}, 7$ ว, $10 \mathrm{e}, 11 \propto, 13 \mathfrak{\infty}$ ) and ( 16 h h ) as all forms of the same vowel, which, to agree with Rapp and English phonologists, may be looked upon as (ə). Giring then to (a) all the different languages now credited with those vowels just named, it occurs, under some more or less distinct form, in 20 languages. The appreciation of so many vowel-souuds as ( $e_{1}$ ) instead of ( E ) has put ( E$)$ out of and $\left(e_{1}\right)$ into this series. The Prince has not found ( $\mathrm{E}, e_{1}$ ) simultaneously, except in 12. Ostiac, and 26. Rhetian; in the first he has not given an example, but in the second he tells me that he has heard the extraordinary series ( $8 æ, 23 \mathrm{x}, 25 e_{1}, 28 \mathrm{e}$, $29 e, 35 i$ ), where 4 means are interposed between ( $x, i$ ). ${ }^{2}$ It is of course possible that other observers might note the sounds rather as ( $8 æ 22 \mathrm{E}_{1}, 23 \mathrm{E}, 28 \mathrm{e}, 29 e, 35 i$ ), or even as ( $8 æ, 23 \mathrm{E}, 28 \mathrm{e}, 29 e$, $31 \mathrm{e}^{1}, 35 i$ ), or might consider the sounds here separated as ( 23 E , $25 e_{1}$ ) to be the same. The recognition of all the terms in such a series is so difficult, that $\left(c_{1}\right)$ may be considered as the Prince's appreciation of what other observers class as ( E ); thus in 40. Danish, he appreciates Mr. Sweet's ( E ) as ( $e_{1}$ ). If we do not count these two languages twice, $\left(\mathrm{E}, e_{1}\right)$ together appear in 35 languages. Again, as regards ( $0, o_{1}$ ), it will be seen that the Prince has not found them both in any language but 21 . Italian, and (39). Norwegian after Aasen. As regards Italian, it is only quite recently that the Prince has considered the sounds (28 e, 49 o) to have been used in unaccented syllables, having formerly supposed the sounds to be

[^19]nasal, and very short, as (vin;' $h_{i}$ ). The ( 16 ' $h$ ) when final, he usually pronomees more strongly than is customary with careful English speakers.
${ }^{2}$ See also Ascoli's Archivio Glottologico Italico, Rome, 1873, which, in a remarkable paper on these dialects, also recognises four means.
( $29 e, 51$ o) in such cases, and he has also quite recently considered the 'open' Italian $e, o$, in accented syllables to be ( $e_{1}, o_{1}$ ), instead of ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{o}$ ) as he formerly thought them to be ( $1180, b$ ), that is, he did not formerly consider the difference sufficiently marked to require independent symbols. The separation of ( $o_{1}, 0$ ) under these circumstances is somewhat doubtful. In the Norwegian, the example for $\left(a_{1}\right)$ is maane, which is ( $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ ), according to Mr . Sweet. Altogether, therefore, we may consider that ( $0_{1}, 0$ ) are fine distinctions of sounds usually confused as ( 0 ), and for our present purpose so confuse them. Hence, adding together the numbers of languages for ( $0_{1}$ and 0 ), taking care not to count these two twice orer, and crediting them all to 490 , its number becomes 42 .

The scale of importance of the 15 vowels thus distinguished above all others, where ( 18 h ) is omitted, ( 4 玉 7 ə , $10 \mathrm{e}, 11 \propto, 13$ ø, 16 h ) are all confounded as (ə), ( $e_{1}, \mathrm{E}$ ) as ( E ), and ( $0_{1}, \mathrm{o}$ ) as ( 0 ), is therefore as follows, the numbers before the vowel being the Bonapartean, and those after the vowel the numbers of European languages out of 45 in which they occur, which are slightly different from those in the last table $(1295, a)$.

| 37 i 44 | 28 e 25 | 71 œ 13 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 a 43 | 29 e 24 | 72 ョ 12 |
| 58 и 42 ) | 51021 | $35 i 11$ |
| $49042\}$ | 7 ว 20) | 43 A 11 |
| 23 £ 35 | 65 y 20) | 8 æ 10 |

and there is little doubt that with these 15 vorrels, forming the series

| I |
| :---: |
|  |  |

and supplemented by their nasal forms where necessary, all the principal languages of the world could be written with an accuracy far surpassing any that has yet been exhibited. Different nations would necessarily demand varieties for their peculiar differentiations, and phonetic inquiries into gradations of sound would require the minutest symbolisation; but no foreigner is likely to appreciate a language with more real accuracy, until he has undergone severe phonetic discipline. The 7 classes of vowels are thus divided into 15 genera, of which the numerous species are exhibited in the list of Towel Identifications, pp. 1300-1307.

In this last list the languages are arranged according to the Prince's own systematic classification, the whole of the vowel-sounds known to occur in any language are given in the order of the Bonapartean vowels, with the corresponding palaeotype, and an example is given to each, in the ordinary orthography of the language, with a translation. After the name of each language is given the number of vowels with which it is thus accredited, assuming ( 16 ' h , 18 ' h ) and ('r, 'l) to be vowels. If we reject these, the numbers of vowels, except in languages 19. Modern Greek, 21. Italian, and 22 . Spanish, will have to be diminished by 1,2 , or even 3 , as in 47 . Bohemian. The following will be the numbers of the vowels after these rejections:

| Vowels |  | Vowels |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | $\begin{aligned} & 3=19 \text { Modern Greek, } 22 \mathrm{Sp} \\ & 43 \text { Illyrian. } \end{aligned}$ | 1 | $2=2$ Fimnish, 26 Rhetian |
| 6 | $1=52$ Let | 12 | $7=1$ Basque, 10 Hmngarian, 12 |
| 7 | $5=6$ Permian, 9 Morduin, 11 Vogul, 14 Welsh, 45 Bulgarian. |  | Ostiak, dialect of Surgut, 17 Albanian, Guègue dialect, 35 Dutch, 36 Modern Friesian, |
| 8 | $\begin{aligned} & 7=15 \text { Cornish, extinct, } 25 \text { Roman, } \\ & \text { Catalan, } 27 \text { Wallachian, } 42 \\ & \text { Russian, } 44 \text { New Slovenian, } \\ & \text { Wendish, } 47 \text { Bohemian, } 50 \end{aligned}$ | 13 | Western dialect, (37) Scotch. $4=3$ Esthonian, 5 Lap, dialect Finmark, 34 Low German, di lect of Holstein, 38 Icelandic $1=49$ Cassubian. |
| 9 | $3=4$ Livonian, extinct dialect of Salis, 8 Tsheremissian, on the right bauk of the Volga, 21 | 16 | $=16$ Breton, 24 French, (39) Norwegian of Aasen, 40 Danish, after Sweet. |
|  | Italian. | 17 | , |
|  | $4=7$ Votiak, 33 Migh 46 Polish, 48 Lusatia | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \\ & 21 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2=23 \text { Portug } \\ & 1=13 \text { Gaelic. } \end{aligned}$ |

The vowels selected by those languages that have the same number are by no means identical ; thus Portuguese and English, which have each 19 vowels in this estimation, have only 6 in common, namely ( $1 \mathrm{a}, 8 \mathfrak{x}, 37 \mathrm{i}, 51 \mathrm{o}, 57 u, 58 \mathrm{u}$ ). This may serve partly to explain the difficulty felt in acquiring the pronunciation of foreign languages. It also by no means follows that the languages most generally esteemed for their sonorousness, or their cultivation, have the greatest number of vowels. Thus 22. Spanish has only 5, 14. Welsh only 7, 21. Italian only 9, 33. High German only 10. 37. English, taking the received dralect, after Smart, and admitting (' $\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{'} w$ ) to be vowels distinct from ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ), is put down at 19 , which, on removing these, reduces to 17 , as in 39. Swedish. But if we include all the dialects, the previous enumeration ( $1262, c$ ) gives, independently of length and doubtful nasalities, and the numerous fractures, and inserting ( $i^{1}, \mathbb{E}$ ) $=$ Glossic [í, ua], which were accidentally omitted, the following 30 vowels from the Prince's list, ( 1 a ,
 $29 e, 31 \mathrm{e}^{1}, 33 y, 35 i, 36 i^{1}, 37 \mathrm{i}, 41$ o, $43 \mathrm{a}, 49$ o, $51 \mathrm{o}, 54 \mathrm{ch}, 57 u$, $58 \mathrm{u}, 65 \mathrm{~J}, 71 \propto, 72$ ә, $75 \partial^{1}$ ), to which ( $o_{\mathrm{u}}, u_{\mathrm{o}}$ ) or ( $u^{4}$ ) have probably to be added, and other vowels may yet be recognised, for example ( 42 oh, 50 oh), in Bell's unaccented syllables ( $1160, a$ ).

It is obvious that the 5 rowel signs of the Roman Alphabet $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$, are quite insufficient for intelligibly writing any one of these languages, except 19. Modern Greek, 22. Spanish, and 43. Illyrian, and would be insufficient to write even the dialects of these. What is the proper notation for all these languages is an inquiry not here raised. The notation here employed, whether palaeotypic or glossic, is merely a makeshift, to gire a means of writing all these languages so that they could be printed with ordinary types,-an end hitherto unattained, if indeed ever attempted. The "missionary alphabet" of Max Müller ${ }^{1}$ is the nearest approach to this, but it is extremely defective in vowel signs, and requires several (4 or 5 ) special types. Nerkel's ${ }^{2}$ is a mere make-
${ }^{1}$ The Languages of the Seat of War in the East, with a Surver of the Three Families of Language, Semitic,

Arian, and Turanian, 2nd ed. with an appendix on the Missionary Alphabet, ete., London, 1855. ${ }^{2}$ Laletik, 1866.
shift also. Lepsius's is full of letters with new diacritical points, difficult to procure, except in a few special founts, not common even at linguistic printing establishments. The Prince's letters are of the same diacritic nature, and are only partly cut, for one fount, which is not "in the trade." Bell's, Brücke's, and Merkel's systematic forms may be also considered out of reach, though the two first have been cut to a certain extent. Hence the necessity of my temporary trpographical expedients, without which the investigations in this book could never have been brought before the public. My own private opinion is that we do not yet possess sufficient phonetic knowledge, either analytically or synthetically, to be able to construct a systematic alphabet or use it securely, but that Mr. Bell's attempt is the best yet made.

Few phonologists will hesitate in joining in my hearty thanks to the Prince for his kindness in undertaking the great labour of executing this table, and liberally placing it in my hands for incorporation in this work.

## Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte's Extended Vowel Triangle.

Arranged by the numbers of the symbols, see ( $1293, c$ ). The numbers in () are to be cousidered as only occupying the position of a single vowel in the arrangement. Only the first number in each of these groups is given as a palaeotype letter in the abridged form on $(1289, b)$, in which also other omissions are made.

$$
\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3
\end{array}\right)
$$

## A

List of the Yowels in Prince L. L. Bonaparte's Triangle.
See (p. 1293). The letter-symbols are in palaeotype, the preceding numbers are those in the triangle, the succeeding numbers are the numbers pretixed to the names of the languages in the following list which use that vowet-sound, according to the Prince's judgment. The rowel-qualities are considered without relation to quantity. The numbers following $=$ shew the number of the languages named in the next list, in which the vowel has been identificd. These vowels may be cited as B 1, B 2, etc. $(1293, c)$.

## A

1 a 12345678910111213 141516171921222324 252627333435363738 (39) 39424344454647 $48495052=43$

```
2 a, 13 = 1
3 aA 116172324=5
4 व 37(37)=2
5 ^. 40=1
6 ah 37=1
7 ә 5113 3739404445=7
```

8 æ $\quad 512132325263537$ (37)
9 æА $23=1$
10 ย $\quad 37=1$
$11 \propto 13=1$
$12 \infty, 13=1$
13 ə $37=1$
14 - $37=1$
$15 .=0$
16 'h 16172324252633343536 $37(37) 4952=14$
17 'h $=0$
18 h 12345678910111213 141516172425262733 34353637 (37) 38 (39) 39 404243444546474849 $505 \geq=41$
$19 \mathrm{oh}=0$
20 a $243436(37)=4$
21 © $27=1$

## E

$22 \mathrm{E}_{1}=0$
$23 \mathrm{E} \quad 2581226=5$
$24 e_{1}=0$
$25 e_{1} \quad 3457910111213162123$ $\begin{array}{lllllll}24 & 25 & 26 & 27 & 33 & 34 & 35 \\ 36\end{array}$ (37) 38 (39) 3940444546 $4748495052=33$
$26 e_{1 ،} \quad 1316=2$
$27 e_{1}{ }^{\Lambda} 11723244649=6$
28 e 123467891011141517 19212224263437 (39) $39404345=25$
$29 e \quad 231012131621232425$ $\begin{array}{lllllll}26 & 33 & 34 & 35 & 36 & 38 & \text { (39) }\end{array} 42$ $444748495052=24$
30 es $1623=2$
$31 \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{l}} \quad 16233536(37) 4648=7$
$32 e^{1} \quad 34527(37)(39) 40=7$

## I

$33 y \quad 1214=2$
$34 \mathrm{x}_{2} 67913274246=7$
$35 i \quad 51315263738$ (39) 3940 $4950=11$
$36 i^{1} \quad(37)=1$
$37 \mathrm{i} \quad 12345678910111213$ 141516171921222324 $\begin{array}{llllll}25 & 26 & 27 & 33 & 34 & 35 \\ 36 & 37\end{array}$ (37) 38 (39) 3940424344 $454647485052=44$
38 i, $13=1$
39 is $\quad 1161723=4$
40 'j $3738=2$

## 0

41 ว $3740=2$
42 ○h $=0$
$43 \mathrm{~A} \quad 10121315343637424448$
$49=11$
$44 a \mathrm{~h}=0$
$45 \mathrm{o}_{1}=0$
$46 o_{1} \quad 23567891213151621$ 232425262733343536 38 (39) $39404749=27$
$47 o_{1}, \quad 134649=3$
$\begin{array}{lllll}48 & 0_{1} \mathrm{~A} & 1 & 16172324=5\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllllllllll}49 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 11 & 14 & 17 & 19 & 21 & 22 & 37\end{array}$ (37) (39) $43455052=15$

50 oh $378=3$
51 o 3101315162123242533 343537383942444647 $4849=21$
52 os $2349=2$
53 oh $=0$
$54 u \mathrm{~h} \quad 1023464849=5$
$550^{1} 35(37)(39) 40=5$

## U

$56 \mathrm{u}_{1} \quad 239=2$
$57 u \quad 17233738(39) 50=6$
58 u 12345678910111213 141516192122232425 $\begin{array}{lllll}26 & 27 & 33 & 34 & 35 \\ 36 & 37 & \text { (37) }\end{array}$ 384042434445464748 $495052=42$
$59 \mathrm{u}_{6} \quad 13=1$
60 us $1172349=4$
61 ' $w 3738=2$
$62 u \quad 39=1$
$63 \mathrm{u}^{1} \quad 5(39)=2$
$64 \mathrm{v} \quad 39=1$

## Y

$65 \mathrm{y} \quad 123478101112161724$ 33343536 (39) 394049 $=20$
66 ys $117=2$
67 ェ $404748=3$

## ©

68 æh $5=1$
69 дh $\quad 214162434353940=8$
70 əha $24=1$
71 œ 3467101226333438 (39) $3940=13$
$\begin{array}{lllllllllll}72 & 2 & 10 & 13 & 16 & 24 & 33 & 34 & 35 & 36\end{array}$ (39) $3940=12$

73 дл $=0$
$74 \propto^{1} 6813=3$
$75 \partial^{1} \quad(37) 38(39) 39=4$

## Murmurs.

$\begin{array}{ll}\prime 1 & 47=1 \\ & 4344 \\ & \end{array}$

## Prince L. L. Bonapaite's Vowel Inentifications in 45 European Languages.

Sce (p. 1293). These languages are arranged in the order of Prince L. L. Bonaparte's revised classification, as given in French in a fontnote to Mr. Patterson's account of ILungarian in my Presidential Address to the Philological Society for 1873 (Transactions for $1873-4$, Part IL., p. 217). The classitication is here incidentally repeated and translated. The different observations as they occur, unless inclosed in [ ], are taken from the Prince's classification or MSS. All the rowel-sounds in each language, so far as known to the Prince, are given for cach language separately. Occasionally, when differences of opinion exist, the list thus formed is eclectic, and gives his own individual judgment. The left hard numbers in each list are those in the triangular and linear arrangements. Then come the forms in palaeotype, followed by a word containing the sowel, in its original spelling; if the word has more than one vowel-sign, a subsequent number, 1 , 2,3 , etc., shews whether the first, secoud, or third, etc., vowel is intended; by this means the usual printed form of the word is preserved. When this is not sufficient, the vowel not being expressed, the place of its insertion is marked by (), or the full prouunciation of the word is given. When two adjacent rowel-signs form a digraph to represent the vowel-sound, their numbers are bracketed thus [1, 2]. Finally, the meaning of the word is given in English, and in italic letters, except, of course, for the English language itself.

Morphological Classification of Euro-
pean Languages.
CLASS I.
A. Basque Stem.

1. BASQUE. 13 vowels.
N.B.--The letters S, R, after a word, indicate the Sonletin dialect, and the Roncalais sub-dialect, respectively.
1 a ura, 2 , the water
3 as āhälke, 1, 2, S, shame
$27 e_{1} \mathrm{~A}$ mēhē, $S, 1,2$, thin
28 e ille, 2, hair
37 i begi, 2, tye
39 is mĩhĩ, S, 1, 2, tongue
$48 o_{1}$ A orrzi, 1, R, to bury
49 o bero, 2, hot
58 u sagu, 2, mouse
60 u. $\frac{\text { nlhün, }}{} \mathrm{S}, 1,2$, thief
65 y sü, S. fire
66 ya sühĩa, 1. S, the sor-in-law
18 ' h bat(), one
B. Altaic Stem.
a. Lialian Family.
a. Tshudic Sub-family.
I. Fimish Branch.
2. FINNISH. 12 vowels.

1 a maa [1, 2], earth
23 е pää $[1,2]$, head
28 e reki, 1, slenge
29 e niemi, 2, promontory
37 i iili [1. 2], leach
$46 o_{1}$ toveri, 1, companion
$56 \mathrm{u}_{1}$ Suomi, 2, Finland
58 u puu [1, 2], tree
(2. Finnish, continued.)

65 y syys [1, 2], autumn
69 วh köyhä, 1, poor
72 a työ, 2, labour
18 'h estet(), impediment
3. ESTHONIAN. 14 vowels.

1 a ma, $I$
$25 e_{1}$ käzi, 1, hand
28 e enne, 1, before
$29 e$ enne, 2, before
$32 e^{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{k}() \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{l}}$ [pronounced (kel $\left.e e l j\right)$ ], tongue
37 i ilm, ceorld
$46 o_{1}$ tolmu, 1, dust
50 oh wölg, debt
51 o pō( $)^{\prime}\left[\right.$ pronounced (po ${ }^{1}$ oolj) $]$,half
$550^{1}$ tolmu, 2, dust
58 u Jumal, 1, God
65 y üks, one
$71 \propto \overline{\bar{o}}$. night
18 'h lüht(), light
4. LIVONIAN, extinct dialect of Salis, still spoken at the beginning of the xixth century. 10 vowels.
1 a kaks, two
$25 \epsilon_{1}$ mäd, our
28 e bet, but
$32 e^{\mathrm{l}}$ ()ězgïrd [pronounced (e $e^{\mathrm{l}} e z$. gyr,d)], nigh
37 i iza, 1, father
49 o koda, 1, house
58 u k'ulk, side
65 y süna, I, name
71 œ loml, 1 , to find
18 'h pieutt(), to take
II. Lap Branch.
5. LAP, dialect of Finmark. 14 vowels.

1 a hallo, 1 , pleasure
7 ว lâkkâ, 1, 2, near.
8 a bärdue, 1 , son
23 E ælla, 1, he lives
$25 e_{1}$ ædne, 1 , mother
$32 e^{1}$ jurdëlët, 2,3 , to think
$35 i$ sivvo, 1 , diligenee
37 i sivo, 1, beaten way on the snow
$46 o_{1}$ dolla, 1 , fire
$550^{1}$ gonagas, 1 , king
58 u rű゙ak, 1 , money
$63 \mathbf{u}^{1}$ jukkim, 1, I parted
68 æh buörre, 2, good
18 'h lokkat(), to read
b. Permian Sub-Family.
6. PERMIAN. 8 vowels.

| 1 | a | ma, honey |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 28 | e | Jen, God |
| 34 | $\mathrm{I}_{2}$ | kyk, two |
| 37 | i | bi, fire |
| 46 | $o_{1}$ | zon, son |
| 58 | u | jur, head |
| 74 | oe $^{1}$ | ötyk, 1 , one |
| 18 | h | $\operatorname{mort}()$, man |

7. VOTIAK. 11 vowels.

1 a zarni, 1, gold
$25 e_{1}$ nil"äti, 2, fourth
28 e pel, ear
$34 \mathrm{Y}_{2} \quad \mathrm{ym}$, mout $\boldsymbol{n}$
37 i in, heaven
$46 o_{1} \quad$ vor, thief
50 oh ōs, door
58 u jurt, house
65 y üi, 1 , night
71 œ tödy, 1, white
18 'h berkut(), eagle
c. Tolgaie Sub-Family.
I. Tsheremissian Branch.
8. TSHEREMISSIAN, dialect of the right bank of the Volga. 10 vowels.
1 a mam, but
23 E ergia, 2, son
28 e edem, 1, 2, man
37 i vid, water
46 o kokta, 2, two
50 oh torre, 1, peace
58 u Juma, 1, God
65 y kü, stone
74 œ $^{1}$ nör, field
18 ' h olat(), they are
11. Morduin Branch.
9. MORDUIN, dialect Ersa. 8 vowels.

1 a ava, 1, 2, woman
$25 e_{1}$ käd, hand
28 e lem, name
$34 \mathbf{Y}_{2}$ syŕne, 1 , gold
37 i ki, who
$46 o_{1}$ ou, dieam
$5 S$ u ukska, 1, wasp
18 'h kot(), weaving
d. Ugrian Sub-Family.

1. Hungarian Branch.
2. HUNGARIAN or Magyar. 13 vowels
1 a kár, to injure
$25 e_{1}$ nyelv, tongue
28 e veres, 1 , read
$29 e$ szél, wind
37 i hid, bridge
43 A kar, arm
51 o pók, spider
$54 u \mathrm{~h}$ nol, where
58 u tudom, 1, I know it
65 y fúu, grass
71 œ ökör, 1, 2, ox
72 a fó, head
18 'h atyát(), father, in acc.

## II. Vogul Branch.

11. VOGUL, dialect of the Konda. 8 vowels.
1 a katš, brother
$25 e_{1}$ ät, hair
28 e ne, wife
37 i ini, 1, 2, thorn
49 o chotel, day
58 u chulp, net
65 y püv, son
18 'h kat(), hand
IIr. Ostiac Branch.
12. OSTIAC, dialect of Surgut. 13 rowels.
1 a ârex, 1, song
8 æ âdhlan, 2, morning
23 E [known to exist, but no example known]
$25 e_{1}$ pet, nest
$29 e$ pêthlei., 1, eloud
33 y jig, father
37 i jîpel, 1, shade
43 a pas. glove
46 or nok, above
58 u sugus, 1, 2, autumn
65 y mül, $\operatorname{cap}$
71 œ kör, oven
18 'h kût(), six
N.B.-Finnish, Esthonian, and Livonian, differ from Lap nearly as Greek from Latin. Similarly for Tsheremissian in relation to Morduin, and for Hungarian, Vogul, and Ostiac among one another.
B. Samoyedic Family with their
\%. Tartaric Family sub-families
ס. Tungusic Family and
є. Mongolic Family branehes.
C. Dravidian Stem, etc.
D. Western Caccasian Stem, etc.
E. Eastern Caucasian Stem, etc.
F. G. H., etc., ete. Other Stems differing greatly from each other, but belonging to this first class.

## CLASS II.

## A. Indo-Germanic Stem.

[N.B.-The dead languages are placed, and their names printed in italic capitals, but no pronuuciation is given.]
a. Celtic Family.
I. Gaelic Braneh.
13. GAELIC. 22 vowels.
N.B.-The letters S, M, indicate Scotch and Manx Gaelic respectively.
1 a adhare, 1 [pronounced (aiærk)], horn
2 a، math, S, gcod
7 a déanta, 3, done
8 æ glas, green
$11 \approx$ laogh $[1,2]$, S, calf
$12 \propto$, maodal [1, 2], S, tripe
$25 \varepsilon_{1}$ féar [1, 2], grass
$26 \varepsilon_{1}$, freumh [1,2], S, root
$29 e$ céim [1, 2], step
$34 \mathrm{Y}_{2}$ daor [1, 2], dear
$35 i$ mil, honey
37 i rí, king
38 i , sinnsreadh [letters $2,3,4$ ], S , ancestors
43 a árd, high
$46 o_{1}$ son, S, sake
47 or didomhnaieh, 2, S, sunday
51 o ór, gold
58 u eúl, back
59 u , déanadh [3 last letters], doing
72 ) leigh, 1, M. law
$74 \propto^{1}$ keayn ['etters 2, 3, 4], M, sea
18 th mallaeht(), curse
if. Breton Branch.
a. Welsh.
14. WELSH. 8 vowels.

1 a bardd, bard
28 e nerth, strength
$33 y$ dyn, man
37 i gwin, wine
49 o môr, sea
58 u cwmwl [letters 2 and 4], cloud
68 ah dynion, $1, \mathrm{men}$
18 'h bot(), round body

## b. Cornish.

15. CORNISH, as spoken in the xvirith century, now extinct. 9 vowels.
1 a hâv, summer
28 e pedn, head
$35 i$ guydn [letter 3], white
37 i piji, l, prayer
43 a bồz, to be
$46 o_{1}$ kylobman, 2, pigeon
51 o mor, sea
58 u gubar, 1, wage
18 'h bohojok(), poor man
c. Breton.
16. BRETON. 18 vowels
N.B.-The letter V indicates the dialect of Vannes.
1 a mâd, good
3 as han̄ [letters 2 and 3], summer
$25 e_{1}$ dervez, 1, 2, day
$26 e_{1}$, ken̄ta [letters 2 and 3], first
$29 e$ éva, 1, to drink
30 es én̄v [letters 1 and 2], heaven
$31 e^{1}$ mané, 2, V, mountain
37 i tî, house
39 is iñtañ:[letters 1 and 2], widower
$46 o_{1}$ tomm, hot
$48 o_{1}$ moñt [letters 2 and 3], to go
51 o gôlô, 1, 2, cover
58 u gouzout $[1,2],[3,4]$, to know
65 y dû, black
69 วh eunn [1, 2], $a$
72 2 keûneûd [1,2], [3, 4], firewood
16 'h cûret, 2, V, loved
18 'h kaout(), to have.
17. Greco-Latin Family.
I. Albanian Braneh.
18. ALbANIAN, Guègue dialect. 14
vowels.
1 a ame, l, mother
3 as bà̀ni, 1 , he did
$27 e_{1} \mathrm{~A}$ l'ène, 1 , let
28 e et, thirst
(17. Albanian, continued.)

37 i bir, son
39 is vĩne, 1 , they come
$48 \mathrm{o}_{1}$ s Ō̄̀ne, 1 , they do
49 o zot, lord
57 u burre, 1, husband
60 ua $\overline{\bar{u}}$, hunger
65 y krūpe, 1 , salt
66 ya hü̃ni, 1 , he entered
16 'h nde, in
18 'h dielit(), of the sun
II. Greek Branch.
18. ANCIENT GREEK, dead.
19. MODERN GREEK. 5 vowels.

1 a $\phi \in \gamma \gamma \dot{\rho} \rho \mathrm{l}, 2$, moon
28 e $\nu \in \phi \in ́ \lambda \eta, 1,2$, cloud
37 i $\psi \omega \mu$ l, 2, bread
49 o रpóvos, 1, 2, year
58 и $\pi о \cup \lambda \mathfrak{f}$ [1,2], bird 111. Latin Branch. $a$. Latin.
20. LATIN, dead.

> b. Italian.
21. ITALIAN. 9 rowels.

1 a gatto, 1, eat
$25 e_{1}$ sella, 1 , saddle
28 e sellaio, 1 , saddler
$29 e$ stella, 1, star
37 i fine, 1 , end
$46 o_{1}$ bosco, 1 , wood of trees
49 o boschetto, 1, grove
51 o bocca, 1, mouth
58 u buco, 1, hole
22. SPANISH. 5 vowels.

1 a madre, 1 , mother
28 e mujer, 2, woman
37 i hijo, 1, son
49 o plomo, 1, 2, lead n.
58 u luna, I, moon
23. PORTUGUESE. 20 vowels.

1 a más, bad, fem. pl.
3 as lā, wool
8 æ mas, but
9 æы cama, 1, bed
$25 e_{1}$ sé, see n.
$27 e_{1} \mathrm{~A}$ sempre [letters 2,3], always
$29 e$ sê, be, imperat. sing.
30 es senha, 1, sign
$31 \mathrm{e}^{1}$ cear, 1 , to sup
37 i vício, 1,2 , vice
39 is sim [letters 2, 3], yes
(23. Portuguese, continued.)
$46 o_{1}$ avó, 2, grandmother
$48 o_{1} \mathrm{~A}$ som [letters 2, 3], sound n.
51 o avô, 2, grandfather
52 os sonho, 1, dream
$54 u \mathrm{~h}$ o, the
$57 u$ soar, 1 , to sound
58 u túmulo, 1,2 , tomb
60 us um [both letters], one
16 'h se, if
c. French.
24. FRENCH. 18 vowels.

1 a chat, eat
3 as dent [letters 2, 3], tooth
20 a diable, 2, devil
$25 e_{1}$ père, father
$27 e_{1} \Lambda$ vin [letters 2, 3], wine
28 e musette, 2, bagpipe
29 e dé, die, n.
37 i if, yew-tree
$46 o_{1}$ botte, boot
$48 o_{1}{ }^{4}$ bon [letters 2, 3], good
51 o beau, beautiful
58 u poule, hen
65 y lune, moon
$69 \mathrm{\partial h}$ veuf [1, 2], widower
70 ohs un [both letters], one
72 a feu $[2,3]$, fire
16 'h cheval, 1, horse
18 'h fat(), foppish
25. ROMAN, Catalan. 10 vowels.

1 a casa, 1, house
8 æ casa, 2, house
$25 e_{1}$ net, nephew
$29 e$ nèt, clean
37 i cosí, 2, eousin, male
$46 o_{1}$ dona, 1 , woman
51 o mòlt, mueh
58 u jutge, 1, judge n .
16 'h pare, 2, father
18 'h foch(), fire
26. RHETIAN, Oberland dialect. 13

## vowels.

1 a bab, father
8 æ essan, 2, we are
23 e är, field
$25 e_{1}$ pumèr, 2, tree
28 e valêr, 2, to be worth
$29 e \quad$ vénder, 1 , to sell
35 i figl, son
37 i masira, 2, measure
$46 o_{1}$ bov, ox
58 u bun, good
$71 \propto$ oegl [1, 2], eye
$16^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ lader, 2, thief
18 'h uffont(), child

## d. Wallachian.

27. WALLACHIAN. 9 rowels.
[There are three orthographies in use, Cyrillic, Mixed, and Roman or etymological. The words are here given in the most esteemed form of the last, and the pronunciation of each word has been added in full.]
1 a acŭ, $1,\left\langle\mathrm{ak}^{〔}\right)$, needle
21 ๔ tată, 2, (, ta tac), father
$25 \epsilon_{1}$ versŭ, 1 , ( $\mathrm{v}_{1} \mathrm{r} \mathrm{r}$ ), verse
$32 e^{1}$ bine, 1 , $\left(\mathrm{be}^{1} \mathrm{n} e_{1}\right)$, well adr.
$34 \mathrm{Y}_{2}$ pâîne [1, 2], $\left(\mathrm{pr}_{2}, \mathrm{ne}_{1}\right)$, bread
37 i vinŭ, $1,\left(v_{1} n^{*}\right)$, wine
$46 o_{1}$ omŭ, $1,\left(o_{1} \mathrm{~m}^{4}\right)$, man
58 u ulmŭ, $1,\left(\mathrm{u}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}^{\prime}\right), \mathrm{clm}$
18 'h bărbatŭ, 3, (berrba,t'), husband
r. Germano-Scandinavian Family.

> I. German Group.
a. Extinct.

28 GOTHIC, dead
29 OLD HIGH GERMAN, dead
30 OLD LOW GERMAN, dead
31 ANGLO-SAXON, dead
32 FRIESIAN, dead
b. German.
33. HIGH GERMAN. 12 vowels.

1 a mann, man
$25 e_{1}$ fett, fat
$29 e$ ehre, 1 , honour
37 i milch, milk
$46 o_{1}$ Gott, God
51 o ohne, 1 , without
58 u buch, book
65 y brüder, 1, brothers
71 œ böcke, 1, roe-buchs
72 ə könig, 1, king
16 ' h mutter, 2 , mother.
18 'h gut(), good
34. LOW GERMAN, dialect of Holstein. 15 vowels.
1 a dat, the
20 a maken, 1, to make
$25 c_{1}$ het, he has
29 e leed [1, 2], song
37 i wien [1,2], wine
43 a wo, how
46 o $_{1}$ kopp, head
51 o moder, 1, mother
58 u kuss, hiss
65 y küssen, 1, to kiss
69 ah aver, 1 , over
$71 \propto$ döchder, daughter
72 a könig, king
16 'h hütten, 2, huts
18 'h hart(), heart
35. DUTCH: 14 vowels.

1 a vlag, flag
8 æ kerk, chureh
$25 e_{1}$ bel, bell
$29 e$ nemen, 1 , to take
$31 \mathrm{e}^{1} \mathrm{ik}, I$
37 i titel, 1, title
$46 o_{1}$ top, top
51 o komen, 1, to come
58 u zoet [1,2], swect
65 y u, you
69 əh durven, 1, to dare
72 a beuk [1, 2], beech
16 'h bode, 2 , messenger
18 'h kat(), cat
36. MODERN FRIESIAN, western dialect. 14 vowels.

1 a makke, 1 , made
20 a âld, old
$25 e_{1}$ sette, 1, to set
$29 e$ leech [1, 2], low
$31 \mathrm{e}^{1}$ stik, piece
37 i wít, white
43 a moarn [1, 2], morning
$46 o_{1}$ lot, lot
51 o doge, 1 , to be worth
58 u hûs, house ) indifferently
65 y hûs, house $\}$ ( $\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{y}$ )
72 ว guds, horse
$16^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ mûsen, 2 , to mouse
18 'h doopt(), baptized
c. English.
37. ENGLISH [see remarks on Smart (1199, $\left.a^{\prime}\right)$ ]. 21 vowels.
1 a fatber, 1
4 a the book, 1
6 ah ass
7 a character, 2
8 æ man
10 r pollute, I
$13 \ldots$ bird
$14 . \quad \mathrm{ea}() \mathrm{r}$
28 e bed
$35 i$ milk
37 i bee
40 ' j ga() te, pronounced (gee'jt)
41 o God
43 A all
49 o more, 1
51 o omit, 1
$57 u \quad$ book $[1,2]$
58 u pool $[1,2]$
61 'w ho()me, pronounced (Hhoo'wm)
16 'h open, 2
18 'h bit()
(37). SCOTCH, Southern dialect. 14 vowels.
4 a to turn, 2
S æ men
20 a man
$25 e_{1}$ way
$31 e^{1}$ siller, 1 , silver
$32 e^{\mathrm{l}}$ there, pronounced ( $\mathrm{dh} e e^{1} \mathrm{r}$ )
$36 i^{1}$ fishes, 2
37 i to leave [2,3]
49 o God
$55 o^{1}$ folk, pronounced (foo ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}$ )
58 u house [1, 2]
75 ə $^{1}$ guid [1, 2], good
16 'h gaed, pronounced (geel'd), went
18 'h that()
iI. Scandinavian Group. a. Icelandic.
38. ICELANDIC. 14 vowels.

1 a maður, 1, man
$25 e_{1}$ hestur, 1, horse
$29 e$ bein, 1, bone
35 vita, l, to know
37 i rikur, 1, rich
40 ' j bein, 2, bone
$46 o_{1}$ opinn, 1 , open part.
51 o góður, pronounced
(goo' $w$ dhur), good
$57 u$ hún, she
58 u úngur, 1 , young
61 ' $w$ góx́ur, [see 51]
71 œ smjör, butter
75 a $^{1}$ sumar, 1, summer
18 'h lopt(), air
b. Modern Scandinavian.
(39). NORWEGIAN. The literary 'conventional dialect of Aasen,' which, though founded on the various Norwegian dialects, and used in some printed works, is, nevertheless, the creation of an individual author. 17 vowels.
a hat, hatred
$25 e_{1}$ klæde, 1, to clothe
28 e lesa, I, to read
29 e kne, linee
$32 e^{1} \quad$ time, 1, hour
$35 i$ skir, to clean
37 i liva, 1, to live
$46 o_{1}$ maane [1, 2], moon
490 skot, shoot n.
55 ol stor, great
57 u sumar, 1, summer
$63 \mathrm{u}^{1}$ hus, house
65 y by, town
(39). Norwegian, contiuued.)

71 œ dökk, dark
72 a lök, brook
$75 \partial^{1}$ stytta, 1, to shortent
18 'h hatt(), hat
39. SWEDISH. 18 vowels.

1 a all, all
7 ә saker, 2, things
$25 \varepsilon_{1}$ ära, 1, glory
28 e meja, 1, to mow
$29 e$ leda, 1, to lead
35 i vinna, l, to win
37 i vin, wine
$46 o_{1}$ sofva, I, to sleep
51 o kol, cole
$56 \mathrm{u}_{1}$ stor, great
$62 u^{1}$ skuld, cause
64 U hus, house
65 y fyra, 1, four
69 oh först, firstly
71 œ kött, meat
72 a dö, to die
$75 e^{1}$ syster, 1, sister
18 'h hatt(), hat.
40. DANISH, according to Mr. Henry Sweet. [Trans. of Phil. Soc. 1873-4, p. 103.] 17 vowels.
N.B. These do not always correspond with those assigned by the Danish Grammarians.
5 a mand, man
7 a mane, 1, to conjure
$25 e_{1}$ hest, horse [Mr. Sweet writes (E)]

28 e læse, 1, to read
$32 e^{1}$ een [1, 2], one
35 i spille, 1 , to play
37 i hvid, white
415 folk, people
$46 o_{1}$ maane [1, 2], moon [Mr. Sweet writes ( $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ )]
$55 o^{1}$ stor, great [Mr. Sweet writes $\left(o_{u}\right)$ ]
58 u ugle, 1, owl
65 y skylle, 1, to rinse
67 I nyde, 1, to enjoy
69 2h st $\phi$ rst, greatest ; [latest ortho-
71 ๙ d $\boldsymbol{r}$, door graphyö for $\Phi$ ]
72 a han dфer, 3, he does
18 'h hat(), hat
ס. Slavo-Lettish Family.
x. Slavonic Branch.
a. Slave.
41. OLD SLAVE, dead.
42. RUSSIAN. 9 vowels.
[The pronunciation of each word is added.]

1 a Ila.IKia, 1, 2, (pa• ka ), sticl:
8 æ MaC0, (miæsa), meat
29 е дерево, 1, 2, (ле (гета), trсе
$34 \mathrm{x}_{2} \mathrm{MD},\left(\mathrm{mr}_{2}\right)$, we
37 i Mipt, (mir), world
43 a xyд0, 2, (khu; da $)$, ill adr.

58 и Мужт, (muzh), man
18 'h xвосшъ, 2, (khvos,t'), tail
43. ILLYRIAN. 7 vowels.

| 1 a | brada, 1,2, bcard |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| 28 e | peta, 1, heel |
| 37 i | riba, 1, fish |
| 49 o | noga, 1, foot |
| 58 u | ruka, l, hand |
| 18 'h | vrat(), neck |
| 'r | prst, finger |

44. NEW SLOVENIAN, Wendish. 10 vowels.
1 a dati, 1, to give
7 a dober, 2, good
$25 c_{1}$ jê, he is
$29 e$ jé, he eats
37 i mir, peace
43 A bồb, bean
51 o zób, tooth
58 u ura, l, hour
18 'h bràt(), brother
'r hrt, grcyhound.
45. BULGARIAN. 8 vowels.

1 a bába, I, granāmother
7 ə dùp, oak
$25 e_{1}$ bánè, 2, bath
28 e déte, 1, child
37 i zímù, 1 , winter
49 o zlat 6,2 , gold
58 u kúkù, I, hook
18 'h brat(), brothcr

## b. Polish.

46. POLISH. 11 vowels.

1 a sam, alone
$25 e_{1}$ teraz, 1 , now
$27 e_{1} \Lambda$ bede, $I$ shall be
(46. Polish, continued.)
$31 \mathrm{e}^{1}$ chléb, bread
$34 \mathrm{r}_{2}$ byli, 1 , they kave been
37 i pili, 1, 2, they have drunk
$47 o_{1,}$ jada, 2, they go away
51 o pogoda, 1, 2, fine weather
54 uh Bóg, God
58 u cud, miracle
18 'h grzmot(), thunder
47. BOHEMIAN. 11 vowels.

1 a skála, l, rock
$25 e_{1}$ led, ice
29 e mléko, l, milk
37 i víra, 1, faith
46 or zvon, bell
51 o ó, o
58 u duch, spirit
67 I kdy, when
18 'h kohout(), cock
'l vlk, wolf
'r prst, finger
48. LUSATIAN, Sorbian, Wendish. 11 vowels.
1 a trawa, 1,2, grass
$25 e_{1}$ jeho, 1 , of him
$29 e \quad$ zemja, l, earth
$31 \mathrm{e}^{1}$ wěra, 1, faith
37 i figa, 1, fig
43 A wono, 1 , thing
51 o woko, 1, 2, eye
54 uh dwór, court
58 u huba, 1 , lip
67 I zyma, 1 , cold n.
18 'h dórtk(), mouthful
49. CASSUBIAN, a still-existingdialect of the extinct POLABIC. 16 vowels.
1 a gadac, 1, 2, to talk
$25 e_{1}$ mech, moss
$27 e_{1 ،}$ geba, mouth
$29 e$ złè, evil
35 i łacinski, 2, 3, Latin
43 a jôd, venom
$46 o_{1}$ pòmòc, 1,2 , aid
$47 \mathrm{o}_{1}$ kat, corner
51 o dobri, 1, good
52 on dom, house
54 ulh Bóg, God
58 u szum, rush
60 us kunszt, art
65 y hysop, 1, hyssop
16 'h nékac, 1 , to bear dou'n
18 'h czart(), devil

> II. Lettish Branch.
> a. Lithuanian.
50. LITHUANIAN. 9 vowels.

52. LETTISH. 8 vowels.

1 a gars, spirit
(52. Lettish, continued.)
$25 e_{1}$ mettu, 1, I throw
$29 e$ séja, 1, seed
37 i bitte, 1, bee
49 o lŏki, pronounced (luoaki), only the ( 0 ) is referred to, leeks
58 u blussa, flea
16 'h méle, 2, tongue
18 'h tizzét(), to believe

B. Semitic Stem,

admitting, as I do, the correctness of Ascoli's opinion as to the connection of the Iudo-European and Semitic stems, although it is disputed by the majority of modern linguists.-L.L.B.
iv. On Fowel Fractures and Junctures.

The word fracture here introduced is of course imitated from Grimm's brechung, but it does not in any respect imply his theory of length $(1265, b, 1270, b)$. By Fracture will be meant the replacement of one vowel by two, more or less closely connected by a glide. By Juncture will be meant, conversely, the replacement of two vowels, generally gliding on to one another, by a single rowel, either one of the two original, or some sound developed in the glide which originally joined them. As to the comparative lengths of the one and the two elements, no theory is started. As to the absolute monosyllabic character of the fractures, no assumption is made. As a general rule, the speaker feels the fracture as monosyllabic, he actually often feels it as containing only one vowel; so that it is only with difficulty, after much hesitation, and frequently unwillingly after strenuous denial, that he comes to recognise the fractured character. It requires generally a fresh ear or a tutored ear to recognise them at all. The fresh ear, if not tutored, is apt only to recognise some peculiarity, without stating its nature, and when it attempts to state it, is often ludicrously incorrect. These statements are the result of experience, not theory. The knowledge of fractures is rather new to mysclf. There were many ways of speech to which I was well accustomed, without having the least idea that they belonged to this class. Dialectal fractures I scarcely appreciated at all, except as sporadic curiosities, till quite recently; yet they are most conspicuous characters of our northern and southwestern dialects. And extending my view from English to other European languages, I seem to sce them largely developed even in written tongues, while the unwritten dialects abound in them. It is therefore necessary to form some classification, pointing out their typical characters. But this must be taken as provisional, requiring probably years of research into living uses, to verify, correct, and replace. If philology is worth anything, the labour of investigating
fractures, and their corresponding junctures, will not be thrown away, for they are rital points in the consideration of rowel relations. It would be quite premature to propound any theory for their origin. The phenomena themselves are not sufficiently known and grouped, and the circumstances under which they arise, although attempted in certain cases to be determined by Grimm, are far too vaguely felt, or too loosely stated, or too imperfectly ascertained, to render a gencral theory possible. The diversity of local habits, and even of habits within the same district, as to words used on different occasions, either of collocation of words, or of relations of the speaker to the listener, throws great difficulties in the way of any physiological or even subjective theory. Our present business is, therefore, simply to propose a rough classification of the phenomena, to assist in grouping. The subsequent dialectal examples will furnish numerous instances.

Fractures may be divided into two classes, according as the adventitious rowel is pre-fixed (Prefractures) or suf-fixed (Suffractures). The original vowel may be gradated ( $1290, c$ ) in any way at the same time.

Prefractures are weak or apertive when the prefixed vowel has a greater closure formed by the tongue or lips than the original vowel, so that the result is a progressive opening. Its types are (ía, úa, íu), with the first element under the stress, but varying as (iá, uá, uí). It is the first form (ía, úa) which is so conspicuous and remarkable in our northern dialects. The second, which often developes from the first, as (iá, uá), has a wide range in the literars languages of Europe.

Prefactures are strong or clausive when the original vowel has the greater closure, so that the result is a progressive closing. Its types are (ái, áu, úi), and do not, at least commonly, vary as (aí, aú), ${ }^{1}$ although (uí) is not uncommon.

Suffractures take either of the above forms, that is, may be cither apertive or clausive, or may be simply continuant or laxative, the opening of the mouth continuing much the same thronghout, or merely relaxing into some of the easy positions, giring obscure resonance, such as (o). The first element is, howerer, the original, or one of its gradations, and the second the adrentitious. In the types, then, the first element is marked long, as (éei, óou, áao). The two first types have crept into received English pronunciation. They are largely developed in Icelandic. They probably were so in old Norman, and have doubtless influenced our Early English forms. The last type (áas) is widely developed in our dialects.

Omissive suffractures arise from the suppression of a consonant, or

1 Here (aí, aú) must not be confused with Grimm's Gothic "broken vowels" $a i$, aú, where " $i$ and $u$, losing their purity, pass over into a mixed sound " (D.G. I ${ }^{3}, 50$ ), supposed to be different from the usual Gothic $a i$, au, which he writes $a^{i}$, $a^{u} u$, and takes as (ái, au $u$, sce
table in (561, b). My use of the acute accent in the notation of diphthongs ( 419, c) was suggested by Grimm's, but in palaeotype (aí, aú) are real diphthongs, and not any "mixed sound," whatever Grimm may have conceived that expression to imply.
its gradual change into (i, u, ə). The types are (ái, áu, áo), and they have been largely dereloped in the received dialect, or its early forms, by the suppression of $g$ and $r$, and sometimes $l$.

False fractures are such as have been simply dereloped recently by mere imitation, or false analogy. They take any of the above forms. Thus the Londoner's ( nain'p) for gnaw comes from the $^{\text {a }}$ analogy of his omissive fracture (maiə, mas') for more, replacing ( $\mathrm{moo}^{\prime}$ ), and similar words.

Junctures arise from the substitution of a practically intermediate sound for a fracture of any sort, or from the suppression of an element, thus (ái, áu) may give ( $e, ~ o$ ) as intermediates, or (a) by suppression; both cases occur.
The most important point to be determined in examining a fracture relates to the original vowel, and, as that vowel is frequently gradated even to obscuration, it is frequently not recognisable without comparison of the forms of a word in various dialects. When the original vowel reaches obscurity, it is necessarily disguised in ordinary alphabetic writing, and will appear under one of the forms $e, a, o, u$, quite independently of any variety of sound, according to the fancy of the writer at the moment, partly swayed perhaps by etymological considerations. ${ }^{1}$ I am not inclined to give medieval writers credit for greater exactness than their modern followers, especially when they had absolutely no sign for an obscure rowel. I do not see why an Anglosaxon scribe in the xth century should not have used ea, eo, precisely as I find modern dialectal writers actually employ them, so far as the second element is concerned. If they had been able to write (eə) in both cases, they would probably often have done so. Not having this power, however, the signs remain ambiguous, and either (éa) may have been meant, or really (éa, éo).

It was in the Cumberland dialect that the apertive prefractures first presented themselves to me in recognisable purity. It was impossible to hear (fías, díal, liat) for face, dale, late, aud (bríad, stían) for broad, stone, with a perfectly distinct (a), and to observe fool, look
 recognising that the original ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}$ ) had been introduced by an adventitious (i), which, usurping the accent, occasionally obscured the other vowel. The subsequent comparison of three Yorkshire forms of speech with the Scotch led me to formulate the process thus. Speakers in different districts have a tendency to introduce an opener vowel by a closer. The tendency varies very much, even in contiguous districts, even in different speakers within the same district, even in the same speaker on different occasions. The introducing rowel generally usurps the stress, and thus obscures the original vowel, but this obscuration does not always follow, and the stress sometimes passes to the original vowel, or its gradated representative, shewing that this was a subsequent process, as the gradation, especially when amounting to obscuration, was more likely to occur

[^20] $\breve{b} \breve{u}$ of the Roman Wallachian ortho-
without than with the stress. The original vorrel being of the (e) class, the introducing rowel was of the (i) elass; but when the original vowel was (a), the introducing vowel was either (i) or (e). The North Mid and Mid Yorkshire forms of speech, hereafter adduced, are distinguished by this difference. The introducing rowel might also be (u) in this ease, but this is not so frequent for an original (a) as for an original ( 0 ). The types (ie, ía, éa, úo) are the most general. But as long as the stress remains on the first element, the second is very difficult to hold distinctly, and rapidly passes over into (o) ; thus the forms (ía, éa, úa) are the most frequent forms of the preceding types. When this stage is reached, the tendency seems to be to drive the obseuration further, by shortening the second element, till it becomes a mere voice-glide, connected so closely with the preceding rowel as to seem rather to generate a new sound than to remain a mere appendage. Thus arise the close fractures ( $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}, i^{\prime}, e^{\prime}, \mathrm{e}^{\prime}, \mathrm{u}^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ ), of which ( $i^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ ) are of constant occurrence in Scotch, where they have been written by Mr. Murray, in his historieal orthography (op. cit. p. 103), as ea, uo, the very signs adopted by medieval writers for related phenomena. The following are Mr. Murray's remarks on these two fractures. "This, the ea, eae, in leade, breae, is a very difficult sound to analyse. Wheu pronounced leisurely, however, the main element will generally be recognised as the long of the English $i$, heard in singing bit to a long note bi-i-i-t, this sound gliding or opening at the end into the $e$ in yet, Scotch $y$ in byt, or perhaps the mid-mixed vowel (ə) in the second syllable of real, which oceupies a mid position between the Scotch $y$ in myll (mel) and $u$ in mull (mal). I often hear the identical sound in English, when the word real (rii $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ ) is carelessly pronounced, as (rizl, rill). When rapidly pronounced, the glide is scarcely heard, and the two sounds seem to mix into an impure ee (i) or close ai (e)." (ibid. p. 105.) Mr. Murray's (i) is rather deeper than mine, and sounds to me generally like ( $i_{1}$ ) or ( $e^{1}$ ), so that his ( $i^{\prime}$ ) approximates elosely to an (e), but a remarkably altered (e). As respects uo, Mr. Murray says: "This vowel bears preeisely the same relation to $00(\mathrm{u})$ and $o(0)$ that $e a$ does to $e e(\mathrm{i})$ and $a i(e)$. When pronounced leisurely, the main element will be heard to be the same as the English 'wide' oo (u) in book, poor, but this sound opens and glides towards the $u$ in $g u n$ (a). When rapidly pronounced, however, the effect of the glide is scarcely felt, and we seem to hear only a very close 0 , almost falling into oo (u), and nearly, if not quite, identieal with the Italian o chiuso, representing a short Latin $u$, as dolce, rompe, somma." (ib. p. 111.) These introductions of ( $e, a, o$ ) by ( $i, e, u$ ) consequently lead directly to the substitution of (i) for (e) or (a), (e) for (a), and (u) for (0). In fact, an unpractised ear receives ( $i^{\prime}, e^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ ) for (ii, ee, uu). ${ }^{1}$ Stone, ags. (staan), which is (stíau) in Cumberland, becomes (sti'n) in Teviotdale, and we hear of (steen) in "general Scotch," and (stiin) in Aberdeen.

The most remarkable of these prefractures is (iu), where ( $u$ ) is a ${ }^{1}$ German lieben and such words have (ii) for ( ${ }^{\top}$ ), see Grimm ( $\mathrm{I}^{3}, 22 \overline{\text { i }}$ ).
gradation of (o). In Cumberland I was for a long time puzzled with what appeared from description to be a peculiar ( $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{v}$ ) sound. Subsequent hearing shewed me that it varied as (iu, ío, ia'), and was in fact a real prefracture of (u). In Norfolk the custom varies, (íu, iú, iy, y, $\mathbf{y}_{1}$, ə) being used as substitutes for (uu); this is even the case in a few words in Kent. In Devonshire, while ( $y, y_{1}, \partial$ ) are generally acknowledged, see p. 636, note, yet the fracture (ma'on, ma'n) may be noticed. The sounds ( $y, y_{1}, \theta$ ) as used in these dialects could not be a Norman introduction, as they occur in words where Normans have (uu). They are not a necessity of Scotch pronunciation, for the Scotch retain the (uu) sound where it was receired from Anglosaxon and French. Hence I am led to consider this ( $y, y_{1}, \partial$ ) as in all cases a juncture arising from the fracture (íu, ío) differently developed in different districts, according to a native custom of pronunciation, and to be in no respects a foreign importation. That the real French ( $\bar{J}$ ) which was introduced in French words, as nature, followed the course of the native fracture, is very probable, and this may account for the simultaneous existence of (iu, y) in the mouths of Wilkins and Wallis, just as we have seen they long afterwards co-existed sporadically. ${ }^{1}$ It is also possible that the puzzling use of $u$ in the xirith century (424, b), which finally introduced ou for (au), may have been due to a similar prefracture. Even the short $u$, which interchanges with $i, e(300, a)$, may be due to a very close $\left(i^{\prime}, e^{\prime}\right)$ form of this fracture. The consideration of fracture at any rate introduces a new consideration depending upon a native existing habit, with whose various forms the old orthography was powerless to deal. For example, the open (éa) could not be orthographically distinguished from the close (e'), except by leaving the former as ea or eo, ${ }^{2}$ and the latter as $e$. This may account for the remarkable treatment of $e o, e$, by Orrmin (487, cd). The hesitation of that writer brought to light by the condition of his manuscript is quite familiar to all those who try to fix a speech on paper. The analysis of fractures is always especially difficult, and the Latin alphabet had made no provision for it. With regard to the particular tendency to interpose (i) before (u), I have been lately struck with its comparative frequency in educated pronunciation, where the speaker would probably have been much offended had any such tendency been hinted at. The (i) is generally ( $i$ ), and very light, and sometimes varies with (y). Thus I have heard room vary as (rum, $r$ Lium, $r \_$yúm $)$, so that there would be clearly very little difficulty in reaching ( $\mathrm{rym}, \mathrm{ry}_{1} \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{ram}$ ).

When the original element is retained distinctly, the position of

[^21]2 The Anglosaxon fractures ea, eo-to which perhaps the confusion of $c a, a e$, with each other and with $a$, will allow us to add at, too cursorily treated on p. 511-will be reconsidered in Chap. XII. Among dialectal writers I have found the utmost confusion in respect to ea, ae, in the forms ( $i, \mathrm{e}^{\prime}$ ).
the stress is very uncertain. Hence (ia, ua) are as apt to become (iá, uí) as (ía, úa). They are, as it were, in a state of unstable equilibrium. This I state from my own personal feelings in listening to Cumberland sounds. But the choice once made has a considerable effect on subsequent derelopment, and either position of the stress may be originally dereloped. Initially, that is with no preceding consonant, the stress falls on the second element or original vowel, and then, in accordance with present English habits, the introducing ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ) bccome the consonants ( $\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{w}$ ). But that this was the Anglosaxon custom there is considerable reason to doubt ( p . 511), either as to the position of the stress on the second element, or as to the consonantal development of the first element. ${ }^{1}$ At present, even in Scotland, we have (JEn, Je'bll, JEk, JEt) for one, able, oak, oat (Murray, p. 105), all being eases of (iá) in the gradated form (ie'). Mr. Murray even writes (huem) where I seemed to hear him say (nhiém). ${ }^{2}$ In general I think that the jerk or aspiration acting on the initial (i) or (u) saves it from becoming (J), but that is a matter of theory, very difficult to decide practically. We have also in Scotch (wartshet, warpi lif, wa pen) for orchard, orpine, open. And similarly to the (HJ), Mr. Murray writes (Hwal), where I suspect (uhua'l), for hole, etc., which is consistent with his secondary historical form huöle, etc. (ibid. p. 112.) The greater number of dialectal writers use $y, w$, in these cases, even after a consonant, as Jwohn in Cumberland, implying (Dzhwon), which is to me a rery difficult combination; but I seem to hear (dzhnoon), which is easy enough. Even in this word I doubted the stress, and thought at first that it lay on the introducing rowel, thus (dzhúon). This is mentioned first to shew the vowel character of the first element, and secondly the instability of the position of stress. There was no approach, however, to (dzhúən), compare the English pronunciation of Juan (dzhuu•)en). In our receired pronunciation we have the fracture (uá) in one (wən). The oldest form of this fracture which I have been able to cite is Jones's (wæn), at the close of the xvir th century, suprà p. 1012, for which a little later, in the xvir th century, we have (won, wan, won), see (1079, a), while at the present day both (won) and (won, wan) are heard (1091, $d^{\prime}$. 1097, a). The fractural character and its recent development are therefore well established.

These prefractures often re-act powerfully on the preceding consonant. Where the aspirate exists we ought to have ( $\mathrm{Jh}, \mathrm{wh}$ ), but these do not seem to be developed. More frequently the aspirate is lost, and (iá, uá) are treated as initials, thus (Jep, Jed, wæm) occur for (пhiép, нhiéd, nhuám), heap, head, home, in Shropshire. When there is a preceding $(t, d)$, the fracture is apt to

[^22][^23]change it to (tsh, dzh), as (tshem, dzhel) for (tiém, diél) team, deal, also in Shropshire. This happens in the received pronunciation. The terminations, -ture, -dure, once (-tyyr, -dyyr), as imported words, split into two directions. In the xvir th century the remission of accent introduced the ready gradations (-tu., -dux), whence (-tax, -dax), which became the rule in the xvin th century. But orthography having crystallised, the fiual -e reminded readers, and espeeially teachers, that $u$ must be "long." Now the old (yy) seems never to have died out, but the modern (iú) may not so much be a fracture evolved from it as a false orthographic fracture, not however without opposition, see Webster ( $1070, b^{\prime}$ ). Once introduced, however, (-tiúx, -diúx) passed easily through (-tiz'ı, -diz'r) into (-tshor, -dzhox), precisely in the same way as in Shropshire. And the alteration of even accented (siú, tiú, diú) to (shu, tshu, dzhu) is of the same kind. This became strongly developed among the Irish in the xvirth century. See the words beginning with ( $s u-$ - $t u^{-}$) in the vocabulary, suprà pp. 1081-2.

In the Romance languages the weak (i, u) prefractures play a great part. Thus in French, (shas) champ is (kiám-pum) altered, and (rwa) older (roe') is (ruee-gem), for (ree'gem), Latin regem. We have this even initial as in Italian (uó $\cdot \mathrm{ruh}$ ) uovo, Spanish (ué•vo) huevo, Latin (oo•vum, uó•vum), Lat. ovum. In Slavonic the (i) introductions are constant. The fusions of the introduced (i, u) with the consonants as $(\mathrm{j}, w)$, which is a preparation for subsequent gradations, need only be mentioned. The especial tendency of ( k , g) to (ki-, gi-), produeing ( kj, gj), and thence (, sh , zh, t, sh d, zh, sh $\mathrm{zh}, \mathrm{s} z$ ) on the one hand, and (ku-, gu-), producing ( $\mathrm{k} w-, \mathrm{g} w-$ ), and thence (w, wh, bh), and conversely, on the other, are well known. It is erident that the tendency towards (ki-, gi-) must have been felt very strongly by a man who could say, like Walker, "When the $a$ is pronounced short, as in the first syllable of candle, gander, etc., the interposition of the $e(\mathrm{i})$ is very perceptible, for though we can pronounce guard and cart without interposing the $e$, it is impossible to pronounce garrison and carriage in the same manner." (Dietionary, Principles, art. 92. See suprà 206, e.) It is curious that under these two words in his dietionary he gives no notice of introduced (i), and does not refer to this dictum in his principles.

The clausive prefractures, (ái áu), have long been recognized. The guna of the Sanscritists brought them prominently forward, and the later Sanscrit pronunciation developed the conception of the corresponding junctures (ce, oo), or (ee, oo), the exact vowel being at present doubtful, but the latter were always to my mind most probable, see also Mr. Gupta's unmistakable pronunciation, (1137, a). But guna was a grammatical or accentual, at any rate not a clearly dialectal, transformation of (i, u), and we were so little prepared to accept such a transformation in English during the $\mathrm{x} \nabla$ th century, that perhaps uo theories propounded in this book were more counter to general feeling than that the original sounds of English $\bar{i}$, ou, were (ii, uu). Yet the change is
precisely of the same nature as that of ( $a, 0$ ) into (ia, úo), and the changes follow an analogous course in both English and German, where a similar feeling was generated at the same time. In the next chapter I shall be able to produce new eridence, through the kindness of Mr. Murray, for the original (ii) value of English $\overline{\boldsymbol{\imath}}$. But the dialectal treatment distinctly points to the same conclusion. The chauge of ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ) to (ái, áu), in various gradations, is a mere fracture, exactly comparable to the apertive prefractures. Where long $\bar{i}$ was gradated, or shortened, the tendency to fracture did not act. But when (ái, áu) were once established, the second element became often obscured, and we find dialectally (áa) or ( $a^{\prime}$ ) for both, so that both sink into simple juncture (aa). The pronoun $I$, originally short, as in (itsh) ich, was treated as long (ii), and fractured to (ái), which is constantly (aa) dialectally, and similarly while is (waal) in Leeds, and five is (fa'v) in Mid-Lothian. The word house is retained without fracture in the Scotch (rhus), and generally becomes (Háus) in some gradated form, but in Leeds sinks to (aas), while in the North of Yorkshire it fractures differently, and gives ( $i i$ 's) from (ius), the old (uus) remaining as a refined form. This is a remarkable illustration of the comparatively recent development of fracture in both forms, furnishing an explanation of such apparent anomalies as the "change" of received (rháus) into (iis, aas, uus), as they would be naturally but incorrectly conceived by those who only recognise received pronunciation. The Yorkshire lists of words will supply numerous instances. A remarkable confirmation of this view is afforded by the treatment of the high German ei, au, which 500 years ago were (ii, uu), as is undisputed in Germany, in the Bavarian dialects (Schmeller, Mundarten Bayerns, art. 236-245, 157-163, see ai, ei, in No. 8 of this section). Many of these dialects retain the old (ii, uu) untouched, and in the refined pronunciation of almost all, the modern literary (ái, áu) are heard, with rarious gradated forms, as ( $a_{i}, E^{\prime} \hat{i}, e^{\prime} i ;$ o ou), which are also common in English, but the mere obscuration (áo) does not seem to have been observed in this particular case.

These clausive prefractures are very widely developed in high and low German, but have not penetrated into Scandinavian, and are generally unknown in Romance. A curious example near Cherbourg is however given ( $460, d^{\prime}$ ). The prefracture (uí), in the form (ué), subsequently gradated to (uá), is originally rather a clausive prefracture than an apertive, as it now appears, and in that form is frequent. The Spanish (ué) form is perhaps to be considered as originally a suffracture (úe), a gradation of (óe) from Latin (o). When a dialect has once seized a sound, the distinction of prefracture and suffracture, which is merely one of origin, becomes lost, and the phonetic development proceeds according to the usual habits of the dialect.

Suffractures, howerer, play an important part in the derelopment of new sounds. They consist essentially in ranishes, which seem to arise from the inconvenience experienced by the organs of speech in prolonging any sounds. The tongue taught to rise from its
position of rest for (e) rises further to (i); the lips closing for (o) close further for (u); and hence arise (éi, óu), of which, however, at least at first, the suffractural character is shewn by the complete subordination of the suffixed to the original element, so that (éei, óou) are the original trpes, which only gradually reduce to (éi, óu) when they become readily confounded with the clausic prefractures (ái, án). The development of (éi) from (e), which has taken place in almost received speech, at any rate in the speech received by Mr. Melville Bell, plays a great part in our Yorkshire dialects, and it is possible that some of the difficulties in older rhymes $e, e i$, as in Havelok, suprà p. 473, may be solved on the supposition of double forms (ee, éi), such as the following tables will shew to actually exist in kindred dialects. It must be also remembered that suffractures of the type (éi, óu) are largely developed in Icelandic. Corresponding to this (éi, ón) type, is the (áə) form, which slightly elevates the tongue, but rather brings the organs to a state of repose. Now this ( $\partial$ ) had no alphabetic symbol but (e), or in Scotch $i$, which has the sound of (e), and represented apparently ( $\partial$ ) as well. The combinations $a i, e i$, oi, would then represent (áa, éə, óə), and readily became forms for long (a, e, o). See (410, $c^{\prime} .637, c^{\prime} .1085, c$. and Murray, p. 52). But the suffractures (éa, óz) have another tendency. The neutral position of the ( $\partial$ ) allows either an ( u ) or an (i) position to be readily assumed, and hence we obtain the suffractures (éo éu év, ói óe óy), and the three last may also appear as '(úi úe úy). Now this would give the developments (éo éu), gradating to (ío íu), which would connect (e) with well-known diphthongs in a simple manner. The suffracture (ói), as in (góid) good, really occurs frequently in Yorkshire, but I cannot recall an example of ( $\boldsymbol{u}^{1}$ ). ${ }^{1}$ The types (ii' ee' aa' oo' uu') are frequent. These are all simple suffractures, arising merely from the feeling of the speaker, precisely as the prefractures arose, and, like them, co-exist not unfrequently with non-fractured forms.

Omissive suffractures, arising from the suppression of $r$, are common in the received dialect, as ( $i i^{\prime}$ ' ee' $o 0^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} u u^{\prime}$ ), see ( $1099, a^{\prime}$ ). In the corresponding ( $a a^{\prime}, \Delta A^{\prime}$ ), the suffracture reduces to the juncture ( $\mathrm{aa}, \mathrm{Aa}$ ). Even in ( $\mathrm{ee} \mathrm{e}^{\prime}, \mathrm{oo}^{\prime}$ ) the suffracture is very close, and is barely recognised, so that ( $\mathrm{oo}^{\prime}$ ) often falls into the juncture (as), or else (ee', oo') are reduced to two syllables, as (ee p, ooj) ), to "make the $r$ distinct," by substituting a clear ungliding ( $\partial$ ) for a trill. This suppression is carried out thoroughly in the south-western dialects, and more or less pervades the northern, exclusive of the Scotch, where the trill never fails. The treatment of $r$ in the Bavarian dialects is very similar (Schmeller, arts. 621-637, and under $r$ in No. 8 of this section), by the introduction of an (o) before the trill when preserved, causing suffractures; by its general omission before consonants, and in final syllables when not before vowels; and even by its cuphonic insertion, of which Schmeller gives

[^24]numerous instances. Such instances shew that, in order to get at the laws of phonetic change, a comparative study of dialectal usages will be necessary, and that we must not be in a hurry to generalise. These considerations have induced me to give an abstract of Schmeller's observations, which are unfortunately but little known to English philologists, in No. 8 of this section.

In the early English we recognised a suppression of (g), or rather its mutation into (i, u), generating diphthongs, which did not form a part of the older language ( $213, a$ ). These diphthongs are real suffractures (ái, áu), and hence different in origin from the prefractures (ái, âu), or the suffractural (éi, óu), already considered. But once received, they are treated phonctically in the same way, for the organs of speech deal with existent sounds, which, when identical, affect them identically, inlependently of origin. The ease of speaker and hearer is in this case identical. There is no intuitive historical appreciation. The history has to be discovered by slow degrees. Those who stamp their own provisional, and hence generally incorrect, notions of the history of a word upon its visible form, by the adoption of a so-called historical or etymological spelling, which designedly misleads as to the real constitution of the word, its audible sound, and rery often indeed undesignedly misleads as to its descent, are throwing unnecessary obstacles in the way of philological investigation. The blunders and contrivances of the early scribes are more instructive than the systematic orthographies of later theorists. The (ái, áu), as derived from ag, ah, should then appear not only in their original form, but as (áə, aa), as well as in junctures (aa, ee, AA) and this is found to be the case. The (áu) form, howerer, comes from ag, through the ( $\mathrm{g} w \mathrm{~h}$, wh, w) transformations of $g$, and hence we must expect it to follow the same fortunes as suppressed $w$. Thus cndwian gires (naa', na', naa, nas), as well as (nóou, nóo, nóo'w) ; dohtor appears as (dóu, tax, da'u tor, dáu, tox, das tar, daa'tar, dee'tor); weg assumes the forms (wái, waa', waa, wi̛', wee', wee, wee'j, wéei, wéi, wéi, WE'i).

Suffractures appear in the receired dialect by the obscuration of a following rowel. which ceases to form a distinctly separate syllable. The terminations -ea, -eal, -ial, -ual, constantly lead to these suffractures, which are sometimes so close that the fractural nature is difficult to discern. Thus idea, ratafia, through ( $\partial^{\prime} \mathbf{i d} i^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$, ræt $\mathfrak{f} i{ }^{\prime} \cdot{ }^{\circ}$ ), lead to (o'idii; rætafii.), of which the first is considered ludicrous, the sccond is received. Real (rii'l) is constantly miscalled (riil), ${ }^{1}$ and really, which is pronounced as rearly formed from rear, that is (rii' $\mathrm{l} i$ ), rhyming to nearly, is miscalled (rii•li). A comparison of the following words will bring out the fractures really heard in ordinary speech. Many persons are apt to make the second words, which have no fracture, and are printed in roman letters, identical or rhyming with the first, which have a more or less distinct frac-

[^25]ture, that is, which are always intended to be dissyllabic, and are printed in italics.

Ideal deal, real reel, really mealy, dial crocodile, vial rile, denial Nile, trial rile, diet indite, quiet quite, riot rite, triad tried, dyad died, Dryad dried, diamond, dire moaned, die moaned, bias bice, lias lice.

The termination $-u a l$ is rather ( $\left.-u^{\prime} \mathrm{l},-\mathrm{i} u^{\prime} \mathrm{l}\right)$ than the theoretical (-úuel, -iújel) in gradual, individual, manual, continual, annual, casual, visual, usual, actual, effectual, intellectual, punctual, perpetual, habitual, vitual, spiritual, virtual, mutual. In some of the commonest of these words, especially when -ly is subjoined, the fracture reduces to a juncture, as ( $\left.-u \mathrm{l},-\mathrm{l},-{ }^{-1} \mathrm{l}\right)$; thus actually, individually, mutually, punctually, usually, are constantly called (æ.ktsh'li, indivi'dzh'li, miú 'tsh'li, p $\cdot$ 'qktsh'li, sun $\cdot z h ' l i)$, in place of the more theoretical and not unfrequent ( $\mathfrak{r} \cdot \mathrm{k} t i u^{\prime} l i$, Jiúu $\cdot z h i u^{\prime} l i$ ), etc. It is by a consideration of such words that those who use received pronunciation may attain a proper conception of such close fractures as ( $i^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ ). See (1310, c).

## v. Bearings of Modern Dialectal Fowel Relations on the Investigation of Older Pronuneiation.

The illiterate peasant, speaking a language entirely imitative, unfixed by any theoretic orthography, untrammelled by any pedant's fancies, is the modern representative of our older population, which, confined to small districts by feudal superiors, the custom of villanage, and the difficulty of travelling, and entirely untaught, kept up their language by the mere necessity of talking, with no conception of a literature, or prevision of the importance which would be subsequently attributed to their natural utterances. The priests aud scholars who, desirous of communicating with them, attempted to reduce their utterances to writing, on the model of the literatures, Latin, Norman, and Saxon, with which they were more or less acquainted, for the purpose of instructing them ecclesiastically, or, as in Robert of Brunne's Chronicle, delighting them with literature, in some degree resembled those country clergymen and literary mon who hare attempted to collect and fix our present dialects by writing. The strictly dialectal writing of past ages must be judged of as that of to-day, by taking the normal alphabet (which was then Latin, with Norman proclivities), and supposing that the writer endeavoured, with insufficient knowledge and insufficient means, and hence with a vacillating pen, but with a good conscience, to record what he heard. Hence it is nccessary to compare the spelling actually used by good dialectal writers with the sounds actually heard by good phonetic observers. This I am not able to do as accurately as I could wish, because I have rery seldom been able to compare the sounds heard with the words written in the district for which they were written. But 1 am able to approximate with sufficient closeness to bring out the principle, and make it intelligible. As our studies of the older English dialects, as such, are as yet quite in their infancf, though taken up by good heads and hard workers, the importance of these considerations is manifest.

Next, by a comparison of different dialects as really spoken, we have to discover, so far as possible, the dialectal treatment of sounds originally more closcly related. It would be rash to assume that they were originally the same as now, because the Saxon and Danish tribes which came to our shores of course already spoke dialectally, and present habits are the result of a fusion, subject to many influences through many generations. The general character of such treatment has just been roughly sketched. We are as jet far from haring data to complete the picture, and the imperfect materials whence the sketch was drawn will be found below. But enough exists to shew that received English, as a spoken language, is only one dialectal form among several, although it has been more controlled than the others, through haring become the dialect of the court, of government, of established priesthood, of law, of the schoolmaster, of the higher social ranks, and of literature. All these influences have often been brought to bear upon it with the iron hand of a prejudice, which, unillumined by any sound philology, regarded all other dialects as barbarous, and proceeded to deck out its rictim according to fancied notions of propriety. But they cannot disguise its dialectal character, and hence cannot prevent our seeking in a comparison of the living dialects a confirmation of the results obtained by an examination of traditional literature.

One result of this is that the primitive character of the sounds represented by $a, e, i, o, u$, cannot be mistaken. The present forms are clearly scen to be either gradations of these, as in $a, e, o$, or fractures, as in $i, u$.
A. The dialects point to an original (a) for $a$, both long and short. This is shewn by the existence of the (a) sound almost universally in the dialects, by its occasional gradations into (ah, $x, \mathrm{e}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{A}, \supset, 0$ ), and by its prefractures into (ía, $i^{\prime}$, éa, $e^{\prime}$ ), and its suffractures into (áa, ái). The hypothesis of (a) explains all these cases satisfactorily; the hypothesis ( $e e^{\prime} \mathrm{j}, æ$ ) would lead to endless difficulties.
$E$. An original (e) for modern $e, e n$, is likewise a necessity of the constant existeuce of long (ee), with its possible variety (ee), and oceasional gradation (ii), a gradation occurring in cases where it does not occur in the receired dialect, as in (wii', dh $i i^{\prime}$, griit, briik) for where, there, great, break; and of its frequent prefracture into ( $i i^{\prime}$ ) or suffracture into (éi), which remarkable form is probably more properly connected with (e) than with (i) in numerous instances. The variations of the short sound, generally ( $e, \mathrm{E}$ ), but gradating into $(x)$, or cren (a) before $r$, on the one hand, and ( $i$ ) on the other, point the same way. As no one could think of $(i)$ as the original short sound of $e$, so the conception of (ii) becomes impossible for the original long sound. The possibility of an original distinction such as ( $e, \mathrm{e}$ ) or ( $e, \mathrm{E}$ ), both long and short, but principally long, though not apparent, is possible. We require, howerer, much more accurate and extensive observations than we yet possess before we can take any point so delicate into consideration. As far as my kind helpers go, I find a difficulty in getting the (ce, ex, e) recognised at all at first, as distinct from (ee, e). Most dialectal observers have
been educated to consider (ec) as the long and (e) as the short sound. Many do not hear a difference of vowel quality in whale where, ale air; many are not aware of the é fermé and $\dot{e}$ ouvert of the French, the $e$ chiuso and e aperto of the Italians. The triple distinctions (e, e, e) require an educated ear. I have found some who at first heard (ee, e) always, come round to (ee, e) always, which may be equally incorrect. Again, the sound recognised as (ee) in Scotland, is so much deeper than my usual (ee), that I should at first hearing put it at (ce), though not (Ee). It is possible that many (ee) sounds occur which have not been noticed. At present, therefore, with our imperfect means for taking observations, we can only say that dialectal studies do no more than point to $e$ having belonged to the (e) group of sounds. In the next chapter we shall see reason for supposing that the old difference was not sufficient to prevent interrhyming, but that is hardly a satisfactory criterion, for though it applies in French, it would entirely fail both in modern German and in Italian. To suppose that an original Gothic $i, e$, should be the parent of two (e) sounds (e, e), is very seducing, especially when put beside the Italian practice. In old high German the rhymes separate the sounds strictly, as in modern French (Grimm, D.G. I'3, 74), but this only refers to the short vowels, whereas Englishmen feel the difference especially in long vowvels. As to old Saxon and Anglosaxon, Grimm ( $I^{3}, 233,333$ ) confesses to great difficulties in finding any distinctions, and remarks that the middle low German and ags. dialects seem to neglect the difference more than the high German (ib.233). As regards middle high German, he observes (ib. 139) that, in the xir th and xiri th centuries, the difference of the two sounds, $e$ broad (e, e, æ), and ë narrow ( $e, i$ ), was very strictly observed, althongh with exceptions there given; but in the xIvth century $e, \ddot{e}$, began to rhyme more freely, which Grimm laments. But coming to his own day, he says (ib. 220) that the difference $e, \ddot{e}$, remains in pronunciation, " at least in the principal cases: legen ponere sounds to us quite different from gelegen positus, regen movere different from regen plavia: but our present poets are so hard of hearing, or so accommodating, that they rhyme both vowels together." Now Schmitthenner (Dictionary) writes rêgen for both the last words, but Hilpert (German Dict.) distinguishes régen to move, with the close sound, from rëgen rain, with the open sound. The distinction depends on locality. Grimm was born and lived chiefly in the Electorate of Hessen Cassel. Now Rapp (Phys. d. Spr. 4, 85), after dividing the custom of modern German pronunciation into three systems, of which the six characteristics are, 1) the treatment of $e, 2$ ) of the diphthongs, 3) of the relations between long and short accented vowels, 4) of $g, 5)$ of $s$, and 6) of $n g$, locates the first system, which he calls the "orthographical," in the north-west, embracing Cassel, and says that all $\ddot{a}$ which evidently come from $a$, and all $\dot{e}$ which come from $i$, are thrown together as $\ddot{\ddot{c}}$, and such $\hat{e}$ as thence appear to be radical remain. Here $\ddot{a}, \hat{\epsilon}=(\mathrm{ef}, e e)$ or (ee, ee), use varying. The separation is not quite that of Grimm, which was of course influenced by
his studies. Here are the words in Rapp's example (ib. 87), the derivations go. gothic, ohg. old high german, ete., are from Schmitthenner:

$$
\ddot{a}=(\mathrm{EE}) .
$$

seele, goth. saivala erden, go. airpa er, ohg. ar, ir, ur vergebens (geben, olg. këpan)
anbete, ohg. anapëton
verkliarter (from klar, from lat. clarus)
der, ohg. der
beben, ohg. pipên
leben, ohg. lëpên
The same so-called "historical $\vec{a}$ " is found in the second or "historical". system stretching over the North of Germany to Russia, and in some isolated spots in the middle provinces, on the lower Rhine, by Fulda, etc.; and in the whole South-west of Germany. The following are additional words from Rapp's example to this system (ib. 89):

$$
\ddot{a}=(\mathrm{EE}) .
$$

wer, ohg. huër
nebel, ohg. nëpal
sehen, ohg. sëhan
schuert, ohg. suërt
säbel, french sabre
dichen, obg. drâhan
weht, obg. wahan or wejan
schr, ohg. sêrò
nährt, go. nasjan, ohg. nerjan
fohlte, ohg. vëlahan
thräne, ohg. trahin
erzähle, ohg. zellan
It is evident that though these systems distinguish $e, \ddot{e}$, in one sense, they confuse $e$ from $a$ and $e$ from $i$ altogether, and that they are not even consistent in so doing. It is a relief to Englishmen, then, who wish to pronounce German intelligibly, to learn that the third or "practical" system, which extends over the whole middle part of Germany, ases (ee) for all long and (e) for all short $e$, as in English. It is no wonder, therefore, that Modern German poets are so "hard of hearing." No one in Germany seems to hear as Grimm's theory requires. Whether anything will be hereafter discoverable in English dialects, it is difficult to say ; at present I see nothing certain in the distinctions apparently made between (ee, ee). To my ears (ce) is more frequently used by English dialectal speakers than (ee), but my experience is limited. The distinctions between (e, E ) are still more uncertain.
O. An original ( 0 ) is more difficult to determine. The sound ( 0 ) itself is decidedly heard in our dialects, but, owing to the habits of received English, hearers naturally confuse (as, oo) and ( 0,0 ), and, when the long sound does not appear yet to have reached (as), it is put down as (oo). The prefractures of (oo) would be (io, io, íu, il'; éo, éo, éu, ce'), and (oo) would gradate so casily to (oo, uu, uu) that I can only express my geueral conviction and not any certainty.

That the (0) was not (uu) when long admits of no doubt, but that it may have been $\left(o, u_{0}, u^{4}, u\right)$ when short, in various cases, at an early time, seems probable. It is more likely that the fracture ( $u^{\prime}$ ) is due to (úo) than to anything else, but of course (úo) is quite possible. Although $o$ has a double source, from $a$ and from $u$, yet there does not seem to be anything in the dialectal treatment to justify the assumption of $(0,0)$, which is not even made by Grimm. The double sounds exist in Germany, but do not co-exist in the same system of pronunciation. Schmeller, however, has a few instances of ( 0 ) in Bavarian dialects (ib. art. 319, see art. 68, and see o in No. 8 below). The regular sounds seem to have been ( 00,0 ) universally at an earlier period. It will be shewn in Chap. XIL. that the rhyme usages of our older poets are not enough to separate them. It is only when we find aus (AA) written for long $o$ in our modern dialects that we can feel sure of a difference having been felt.
I. That long $i$ was originally (ii, $i i$ ) appears dialectally from the preservation of that sound in many words (291, c), and from its clausive prefracture (ái) in various forms, which sometimes becomes the juncture (aa) eren when ( $i i^{\prime}$ ) exists in the same dialect. Long $i$ might indeed be (aa) under these circumstances, but no one has probably ever imagined such a thing.
$U$. By the long $u$ I mean the original sound, afterwards represented by ou. This appears to be (uu) by the preservation of that sound throughout the Northern dialects, and by its prefractures (án, íu), degenerating into (aa, $i i^{\prime}$ ). Of course it would be ridiculous to suppose that $u$ was originally either of these latter sounds. The short $u$ may have been the close fracture ( $i^{\prime}, e^{\prime}$ ) when it interchanged with $i, e$, and finally necessitated the use of ou for (uu) as a mark of distinction. Owing probably to the existence of the sign ou, the prefracture was always assumed to be (óu, a'u, o'u) by our older phonetic writers, and not (áu). Of course the labial (u) tends to work back on the prefixed (a) by transmutation, and thus labialise it into (o), so that the change of (áu) into (óu), or the original formation of (óu), is quite natural. In Deronshire, after $u$ had been conceived as ( $y$ ) in some form, the transmutation of ( 0 ) into (œ), producing the fracture ( $œ^{\prime} y$ ), was equally natural. The use of $u$ in French words was a foreignism. In dialects this $u$ is a fracture (ín, iú), and raries as such a fracture.
$A T$. $A U$. The combinations $a i$, $a u$, seem by the dialects to be treated as (ái, áu), whether as prefractures of ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ ), or as suffractures of (a). The persistence of (ái), not merely in the SouthWestern dialects, but in the Eastern and South-Eastern, and the mode in which the (ái, ee, ii) sounds are mixed up together within the same dialect, seem to be inexplicable on any other hypothesis but an original (ái, éi). The forms of (áu) as (AA, 00, 00) tell a similar tale.
$E W, O W$, were also fractures (éu, óu), arising from the disappearance of $w$, or occasionally $g$. That laugh, when gradated from (laawh) to (lowh), and thence passing to (low, lou), might have become (luu) or even (lii), would not be surprising, when we find a
bow appearing as (bii', buu, bóu) within the same (North Yorkshire) dialect.

Double Forms. One of the most interesting points forced on our attention by dialects is the great variety of co-existing forms withiu the same or closely-connected distriets, and also the fact that a word alters its sound according to its position in a sentence, and according to the meaning of the sentence. In old pronunciation we were continually puzzled by a similar variety of form, of which we have not many relics in received speech, as either (ii•dhax, $a^{\prime} \cdot i \cdot d h \partial x$ ), so that it seemed like begging the question to assume it. But the present investigations make such assumption far less bold than the alternatives to which we should be otherwise forced.
$E$ final. The controversy respecting final $e$, to which we shall have to recur in the next chapter, makes it important to discover any traces of its pronunciation. As yet none have been discovered. This refers to pure $-e$, and not to $-e$ as the representative of $-e n$. The pure $-e$ scems to have altogether disappeared, but though $-e$ as a form of een does zot appear to be known, -en itself is still preserved in the usages of several dialects. Now, as the absence of en in some dialects is thus seen not to prove the original absence of en in others, so the absence of $-e$ in some dialects at an early period, as in the Northern Hampole, would not disprove its cantemporary use in some other dialects, as in the court language of Chaucer and Gower. Just in the same way, the universal reduction of ed to $-t$, $-d$, in speech, far more than 50 years ago, would not disprove the universal pronunciation of eed as a distinct syllable by clergymen when reading lessons from the Authorised Version of the Bible in church, within the last 50 years, even in such cases as crucifiëd and buriëd, as marked by Bishop Wilkins (998, d) more than 200 years ago, and by Gill, 250 years since, suprà pp. 855-857. Indeed some clergymen have not even yet given up a practice which had an air of solemnity resulting from archaism. It is a rery familiar reminiscence to myself. The transmutation of eed into $-t$, $-d$, sounded almost heretical when I first heard it.

We cannot be surprised at the absence of $-e$, which disappeared from our versification nearly 300 years ago. We should be more surprised at the preserration of een, for we know that in most cases -en degenerated into -e, and then disappeared. The modern dialectal absence of any sound does not cstablish its original absence; but the dialectal presence of any sound either establishes its original presence, or the original presence of a sound from which it could be derived, according to the ordinary usages of speceh. Now with regard to $-e$, there is no doubt whaterer of its lively presence in high German at the present day. It is part and parcel of usual speech. It is not confined to poctry or music, as the French -e. It is really used on every prosaical occasion by every prosaical speaker. Three years' residence in Germany has brought this fact so many thousand times before my ears, that no doubt in the world can exist in my own mind. As all the world knows and admits the fact, it would scem superfluous to attest it so explicitly from personal
knowledge. But there are some deniers of English -e, who insist that people could not have used it, simply on account of the absurd waste of time and energy in pronouncing it. Hence it is necessary to establish the fact that another great uation does not find its use involve an absurdity. As, howerer, the modern English final -a, -er, are pronounced generally ( $-\varepsilon$ ) or ( $-\ni$ ), much as the final German $-e$, and as the old final English $-e$, if pronounced, was most probably so called ( $119, b$ ), and as we should not find it either elegant or particularly time-saving and energy-sparing to omit this sound and say pic, Americ', armad', panace', ide', are', naphth', acaci', cyclopadi', umbrell', vanill', vill', soroful', wul', dram', anathem', enigm', stigm', dogm', dilemm', comm', hyen', duenn', Chin', er', chimer', oper', ete., or pecull', pill', angul', mast', mist', doct', etc., etc., ett., it is evident that such an argument is hardly worth consideration. To such vile uses we may come at last, but we have not yet reached Chinese monosyllabism, much as we may have spoiled our language by mere pruning. The reason, however, why I especially insist on the lively use of $-e$ in high German is, that this $-e$ has disappeared in many high German dialects, except as the representative of -en. The preservation of $-e$ in any form, or even of $e$ in the prefixed be-, ge-, is extremely rare in all the Bararian dialeets, although the sound of -e is used for -en in about half, the other half reducing -en to a vowelless $n$. See the instances in Schmeller (arts. 209-235, 572592, and under $e$ final in No. 8 below). ${ }^{1}$ We have herein the positive proof that the dialectal disappearance of $-e$ is compatible with the co-existence of its dialectal use, which may or may not be fixed by literature. ${ }^{2}$ It is, therefore, a perfectly justifiable view to take, that final -e may have disappeared in some dialects in Early English and have existed in others. Moreover, this disappearance or use cannot be proved by manuscripts, beeause we find scribes who spoke different dialects transeribing the same original, and preserving their individual orthographic habits. It can only be established by habits of internal versification, not even by rhyme endings, and the inquiry into its use in the middle of lines is rendered wonderfully difficult by the uncertainty of readings, and the recklessness of scribes, so that single manuscripts are by no means conclusive. In the next chapter this point will be examined, with especial reference to Robert of Brunne's Chronicle.
${ }^{1}$ Remarking on this loss of flexional form, which in literary high German had been already reduced to $-e$, Schmeller says (on his p. 51 ) that "this does not prevent these same dialects from having more or less evidently preserved isolated remarkable forms belonging to the older or even oldest phases of the language, which, when literary speech was fixed, were not admitted, owing to the prevalence of certain views or fashions."
${ }^{2}$ Dutch is often quoted as a tongue allied to English in which final $e$ is
lost. See Mr. Sweet's remark on the preservation of its sound in (1292, c). In Johan Winkler's Algemeen Nederduitseh en Friesch Dialecticon ('s Gravenhage, 1874), giving 186 versions of the Parable of the Prodigal Son into as many Low German dialects, final $e$ seems to crop up somewhere in every example. At the same time it flits in and out, so that we may feel prepared for similar unecrtainties in our owndialects, especially about the beginning of the xy th century. Even if poets were careful, copyists were not.

## No. 7. Dilectal Consonant Relations.

The relations of consonants in our dialects are altogether simpler than those of vowels, although they present some peculiar points of difficulty. The distinction of roiced and voiceless is very gencrally kept up. It is only in the southwest that ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{th}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) become ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{zh}$ ) with tolerable regularity. But the same dialects do not confuse ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) with ( $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ ). This is singularly in opposition to German habits, which are uncertain of the explodents, but certain of ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$ ). The continuants (th, $\mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{zh}$ ) not occurring in German, ant (bh), not (v), being used in middle Germany, which is most addicted to the interchange of ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{td}$ ), there is no opportunity of examining the continuants further. The (th, dh ) are sometimes confused in the north of England. Thus though is (thoo) in Scotch, and the usual the (dhe) is voiceless and rowelless (th-) in South Lancashire, Cheshire, Derbyshire, and elsewhere. This seems to confirm Mr. Sweet's riew of an original (dh) which became (th) in isolated cases (p. 541, n. 2) ; thus both (dh) and (th) are found in South Derbyshire. In the North again a (z) appears where the received use is (s) in (prisái $\cdot$, deze.mbor, Hhaz) for precise, december, us, and other words, and a (v) for an (f) in (kaav) calf, etc., so that the confusion of hisses and buzzes is not exclusively southwestern.

The interchange of (b bh, g gh) is not to be looked for, as (bh, gh) do not occur, at least consciously, in our present dialects. The (d dh), which do occur, are not perfectly related, as (d) is not, at any rate generally, dental, although the fact of dentality may have been often orerlooked. In the southrest (d) replaces (dh) initially, especially before (r), as (druu, drii) through, three, and occasionally clsewhere, as (dis'l) thistle in East Comwall. I have not been able to ascertain if the (d) is then dental as (,druu, drii). Medial substitutions of (dh) for (d) are not uucommon, and have even crept into older received orthography, as burthen, murther, now burden, murder. In Norfolk three becomes tree. This again raises the question as to whether ( $t$ d) in English were not originally dental (. t d), as in Celtic, and on the continent generally.

This inquiry is, howerer, complicated by the acknowledged existence of (.t d) in some northern dialects, but almost, if not absolutely, exelusively before ( r ) or the syllable (or) or its substitutes. This dental, or something like it, is also found in Treland in the same places (1239, $a^{\prime}$ ). There are even phases of dialect which are distinguished by having the usual coronal ( $t \mathrm{~d}$ ) in precisely the same situations as those in which related phases use the dental (.t d), for example the Chapel and Taddington varieties of the Peak of Derbyshire, the first haring (.t d ), the second ( t d ), and similarly in Yorkshire. This singular distinction entirely corresponds to the Sanscrit, which occasions such difficulty to Englishmen and Germans (p. 1096). The area and origin of the English cornal ( $t$ d) require strict examination, but so few Englishmen hear the distinctions ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}$, $d, d)$ that the inquiry is beset with as much difficulty as that of the distinction between (v bh) in Germany. Sce Mr. C. C. Robinson's observations on Yorkshire usage in No. 11, below.

In connection with this must be noticed the occasional assimilation of ( dh ) to ( t ), after a following ( s ) or ( t ), as (uha'sta) for hast thou? and even of (th) in Derbyshire, as ('ii-stondz et-' 't-bak-в aar was), he stands at the back of our wall, where (et th-bak) would have been the regular form. In the example of W. Lincolnshire given below, it will be observed that the, which had the regular form (dh-) before vowels, varies as (th-), and even ( t ) and (d), according to the adjoining letters. This is similar to Orrmin's custom ( $490, b$ ), and must not be confounded with the use of vowelless ( t ) for the article in Yorkshire and Cumberland. Is this last (t) the degeneration of (th), which is itself an altered (dh), or an independent formation? This is a matter of controversy. But that the ( t ) may be the degeneration of (th, dh) is certain, because in the Orkneys and Shetlands all (th, dh) have become ( t , d ) or (.t, d), and in Kent and E. Sussex th in the, this, them, those, there, that is, (dh) in certain words, is always (d); while we have seen that neighbouring consonants in many places reduce the (th, dh) to ( $t, d$ ). The pronunciation of this rowelless ( $t$ ) when nsed as the article is most singular. To my ear it does not in native speech run on to the following vowel, but is, if possible, connected with the preceding word. ${ }^{1}$ When it stands initially in a sentence, so that this connection is impossible, as when it precedes a roiced consonant, as (b, d, g), $t^{\prime}$ dog, or stands between two roiced consonants, as in $t^{\prime}$ backhouse, or stands between two similar consonants, as at $t^{\prime}$ time, at $t^{\prime}$ door, the method by which its effect is made evident-and it is always evident-seems to be mainly by a slight implosion, as (' 't), see (1097, $c^{\prime}$ ). Both Mr. C. C. Robinson and Mr. Hallam, to whom this $t$ is vernacular, accept this theory. There is, however, a certain holding, and a certain delay, in passing from the presumed implosion to the following consonant, giving a little catch or hesitation, so that it is difficult to determine the precise sound. Yet the existence of a distinct syllabic ( t ), which is certainly not ( $\mathrm{ht}, \mathrm{t}$ ' $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{t}_{+}^{+} \mathrm{h}$ ), is a remarkable phenomenon, well deserving of most careful investigation. Our old ' $t$ for it is not comparable, for it always glides on to a preceding or succeeding letter. The Slavonic preposition (v) is a roiced consonant, and hence quite pronounceable. The manner in which the French $d e, t e, j e$, re-, are spoken, when they seem to be entirely swallowed, and yet produce a most sensible effect to French ears, comes perhaps still nearer to it. To merely write ( $\mathbf{t}$ ), or the etymological $t$ ', ' $t$, according to the difference of view as to the the or et het origin of this $t^{\prime}$, is of course helpless. I have, however, generally adopted ( t ) in the following examples, and left the reader to glide it on to the preceding letter, or to make an implosion, as the case may be.
The interchange of ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) is well known among children, and some Polynesians could not get nearer than ( $\mathrm{Tu} \cdot \mathrm{tc} \mathrm{)} \mathrm{for} \mathrm{Captain}$ Cook's name. The use of ( $\mathrm{tl}, \mathrm{dl}$ ) for initial ( $\mathrm{kl}, \mathrm{gl}$ ) is very general,

[^26]even among educated people, ${ }^{1}$ and in some dialects my authorities adopt it regularly. Though ( $k$ ) has generally disappeared before (u), Cumberland, as will be seen, retains traces of it, as (nhn-), and eren (tn-), where the change is similar to that of (kl-) into (tl-), and may be regarded as a prospective transmutation, oceasioned by preparing the organs for following ( 1 , whereas in Italian, (1) sinks by retrospective transmutation to (i), making way for ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ), as in chiamo ghiaccio (kiá•muh giá t.t.shıh). In (lok) for (lot) in Cumberland, the opposite tendeney appears.

The effect of an unaceented (i)-sound, generally a fractural prefix, upon a preceding ( $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}$ ), frequently shews itself in the dialects, by gencrating ( t , $\mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{zh}$ ). In $\operatorname{Seotch}(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g})$ generally remain, but in English this is quite the exception. The same cause sometimes, but not always, makes ( t , d ) into ( t , sh, d , zh), and ( s ) more generally into (sh). The (zh)-sound is not rery frequent, it is generated in words, as vision, azure, which are not dialectal. As the -ture, -sure, endings do not generally develope a fracture, they more often remain as (-to.x, -so.x, -zo.l), but being altogether strange are treated very irregularly; compare Yorkshire and Shropshire. Mr. Murray (op. cit. p. 85) informs us that in the central valley of Berwickshire initial ch, that is ( t sh-), is pronounced as (sh-) simply. It would be worth while ascertaining distinctly whether this is (sh) or (.sh). It may be simply the latter, and hence the inhabitants of (Shi.r-set) Chirnside ( $56 n 48,2 w 12$ ) may be as much maligned as the inhabitants of Rome, for using (sh) in place of (tsh). But the intermediate sound is worth noting. ${ }^{2}$

The habits of speakers in different localities differ very much respecting ease and difficulty in consonantal combinations. The (-mr-) frequently develope (-mbr-), by dropping the nasality of (m) before releasing the lips, and thus we have our received timber, chamber, number. Our dialects, however, do not patronise this, and ( $\mathrm{t} \cdot \mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{m} \boldsymbol{x}, \mathrm{tsha} \cdot \mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{na} \cdot \mathrm{max}$ ) consequently occur. The name Hamilton is often (Hhæ mb'lten) in a Southern mouth, but the Scotch are content to call Campbeil ( $\mathrm{kaa} \cdot \mathrm{m}$ 'l ). Similarly ( $-\mathrm{nl}-$ ) often generates (-ndl-), but dialects generally content themselves with (-nl-), as (rha'n'l) handle. There is indeed a constant inclination to carry on the nasality of ( $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ ) until the contact is released, and thus substitute simple ( $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ ) for ( $\mathrm{mb}, \mathrm{nd}$ ). The participles in -ing in the received dialect, which were originally in -nd, consequently appear

[^27]as ( $-i \mathrm{iu}$ ) in most dialects. Of course this is not the reason why the gerund or verbal noun in -ing has also fallen into ( -in ) in most dialects. In Southern Scotel the distinction is made in the vowel, not the consonant, (-an) participle, and (-in) gerund (Murray, p. 211), but the other dialects confuse the two cases. This may have been an assimilation. There is no powerlessness to pronounce ( $q$ ), which some dialects even take as ( $q \mathrm{~g}$ ) final, not ( $q \mathrm{k}$ ). Medially they seem as a rule to prefer (q) to the occasional ( $q$ g) of the received dialect, saying ( $\mathrm{f} \dot{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \mathrm{q} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { r }}$ ) rather than ( $f \cdot \mathrm{q} \cdot \mathrm{qg}$ ) ). Before (th), the ( $q$ ) sinks very geucrally to ( n ), in (lenth, strenth).

L and R are the two most vowel-like consonants, forming distinct syllables of themselves. In this respect they differ materially from (w, J), which, if really prolonged, are almost as unvowellike as ( z ), but in consequence, perhaps, naturally and easily gradate to ( $u$, $i$ ). If $R$ is untrilled, the resulting ( $r_{\circ}$ ) instantly gradates to ( $\partial$ ), and thence to some other obscure rowel. L obstructs the cavity of the mouth by its central contact, much more than ( $\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ), but still it is very apt to gradate to (ə), and thence be entively lost. Sometimes in Romance languages it passes rather into (i) or (u), according to the tendency of the people to raise the middle of the tongue, or somewhat round the lips to improve the resonance. In the dialects both $l, r$, are apt to disappear entirely after (aa, as). Indeed, received pronunciation adopts the same habit in balk, etc. After (oo) the $l$, by prospective transmutation, inclines to ( $u l, u$ ), and the diphthongs (óul, óu) result, the foundation of ( $\partial^{\prime} u$, $x^{\prime} u$, áu), in roll, shoulder, etc., which were once received, but are now only dialectal, and not unfrequent in dialects. After the other vowels (1) does not seem to have the same tendency to disappear, though (uul, ul) degenerate to (uu).

LD final seems to be a distasteful combination, either $l$ or $d$ being frequently dropped. The $d$-closing of the passage by the sides left open for $l$ requires an amount of pressure apparently inconsistent with the lazy ease of dialectal speech.
$R$ is treated very variously. In Scotland it is a distinctly and rather harshly-trilled (.r), but how far dental I know not. Where Scotland breaks into England, just about Berwick, the urular ( $r$ ), which Southerners call the burr, and natives the (krup), begins, but marks out a very small district. ${ }^{1}$ Coming more south, the initial

[^28]because many of the farmers aud shepherds are of Scottish origin. In the vale of the Reed [which runs into the Tyne, $55 n 19,2 w 22]$ we suddenly enter the crhoup (krup) country in the neighbourhood of Otterburn (otohe-bohrn) [ $55 n 15,2 w 10]$. In Cumberland, Westmorland, and the rest of the North Angle area, the $r$ is now pronounced as in other parts of England." Murray, op. cit. pp. 86-7. There are apparently many varieties of the burr. The one I heard was $(r)$, but extensive observation is necessary to determine this
trill is distinct, but not so powerful, and generally more or less of a trill exists, even when no vowel follows, but such trills seem nerer to be very marked. In S. Shields speech, remarkably similar to Southern Scotch in its general character, and close by the country of the burr, but where the burr is unknown, this final $r$ seems entirely to disappear, or crops up as a faint ( $\partial, \mathrm{v},{ }^{\prime}$ ), or perhaps a glottal ( I ). But in Westmorland there is apparently an occasional, possibly dental ( $\mathbf{r}$ ). Whether this ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) appears generally after (.t , d) is questionable. Mr. Hallam thinks the tongue in his $t r$ is more advanced in the mouth than usual, and that he consequently really says (.t.r). Mr. Robinson finds a dental ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) occasionally after (g) in Yorkshire. In Yorkshire this final $r$ seems to be in a state of transition, sometimes appearing, often disappearing, and generally being rather permissive, as (. 1 ), than obligatory, as (r). But there are times when the trill is indispensable. In Shropshire it is stated to be always felt, but to be slight. To speak of "feeling a letter" is sometimes misleading. A Spaniard once told me that his final d was rather felt by the speaker than heard by the listener. If the speaker confines himself to putting his organs into the proper position to articulate, but neglects to issue breath, vocalised or not, he may feel his words, but the bystander will be none the wiser. Schmeller, speaking of the initial ge- reduced to $g$, and lost before a following explodent (op. cit. art. 485), says that "it is not heard independently (fur sich), but that we recognise the preparation (Ansatz) made by the tongue to pronounce it, by the greater decision (Entschiedenheit) with which the initial sound strikes the ear." Thus gebunden becomes (.bu'nd'n), or perhaps (biu nd'n). The case of 't' dog, already referred to, may be the same, (. d g ) rather than (''t dog), and this is one of the points to which attention should be directed. In the same way, while pronouncing a vowel, even (aa, $A A, G \pi$ ), the speaker may feel the tongue rise at the end. It may only take the position (ə), the tip may rise to ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ), it may give the slightest quiver ( $\mid[\mathrm{r}$ ) , and all this may be felt by the speaker, but it would be difficult for the listener to hear. The habit of writing, and moreorer the habit of not trilling final $r$, nay, the incapability of trilling it, which is often experieneed by Englishmen, and, finally, the habit of assuming the long-vowel glide in (baod) to be a representative of an existing $r$, because it is felt to be so different from the stopped-rowel glide in (bod, bodd), sce (1156, $d^{\prime}$ ), are all so misleading to an English observer, that I frequently mistrust the accounts giren to me, thinking them open to these sources of unconscious error. People seem to be afraid of admitting that $r$ is not sounded. Crities and reviewers laugh to scorn such rhymes as morn dawn (575, d. 593, $c^{\prime} .1195, b^{\prime} .1228, b$ ), till the judg-
habit. Sometimes the sound seems to come up to (grh), sometimes to sink to ( I ), and sometimes to reduce to (gh, g), or an hiatus of powerlessness. At other times the uvula is very sharply and brightly trilled. The sound seems also to differ in the pitch of the ac-
eompanying vowel. The subjeet is difficult, but the sound is so diffused, sporadically and macknowledged, in England, France, and Germany, not to mention its acknowledged existence in Arabic, that it deserves attentive study by all philologists.
ment is confused, the nature of the trill is forgotten, the "something" usually uttered or positioned or imagined when $r$ is seen on paper, is called an $r$, and final $r$ is said to be distinetly prononnced, when it may be that a vowel is merely lengthened, or at most a suffracture introduced. When any one writes larf brort to indicate (laaf brast), in which words no trilled (r) was ever pronounced,-and such spellings are very common among writers of dialectal specimens,-the whole question is reduced to chaos. A trill is a succession of beats, ${ }^{1}$ that is, of sounds of rery different intensities in rapid succession; it is of no consequence how the beat is produced, but, unless at least two maximum and one minimum, or two minimum and one maximum, degrees of intensity have been heard, unless a succession of "makes and breaks" has been at least indicated, there is no trill in any one of the forms (brlh, w, r, r, r, grh, I), all of which probably occur at some place, or at some time in different places, or among defective speakers, in England. And other $r$ 's may oceur, as the Irish rolling (, $\mathbf{r}$ ), see ( $1232, b$ ), a retracted ( $\mathrm{r}^{2}$ ), see ( $1098, b^{\prime}$ ), and an $r$ made by a striking of the tongue against the teeth, gums, or roof of the mouth, for which ( $r$ ) may be used, the difference between ( $r$ ) and ( $x$ ) being that between the actions of the clarinet and harmonium reeds. Anything, in short, which gives a final roughness (the characteristic sensation produced by rapid beats) will pass muster for an English $r$, and, what is more, be intelligible. See also (1194, $a^{\prime}$ ).

But there are parts of England in which the disappearance of $r$ is fairly acknowledged, namely in parts of the southwest. ${ }^{2}$ The
${ }^{1}$ Donders (Spraakklanken, p. 19), referred to ( $1098, c$ ), see also ( $1099, c^{\prime}$ ), gives some interesting drawings of the phonautographic curves produced by the trills (brh, $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}$ ), showing how the trill shuts off and opens out the roice some 20 or 30 times in a second. The lip trill (brh) produced long silences, and rather faint intermediate sounds. A fine roice and weak $(r)$ trill gives short weakenings of tone rather than complete silences intcrposed between bold sounds. A weak voice and strong ( $r$ ) gave long silences and faint intermediate sounds. The same singer with a loud voice produced equally marked silences. A distinctly sounded tip tougue ( $r$ ) gave sound and silence of nearly equal lenoth, but made the sounds quite clear. The effect is nearly the same as when two tuning forks, sold as of the same pitch, but almost always slightly different, are struck and held orer the same resonance chamber. The sound and silence follow one another with remarkable distinctness. It is not precisely that of a shake in music (It. trillo), but so like
it that I have known an excellent imitation of a shake produced on musical glasses by sounding two together which differed by half a note in pitch, and the tremolo stops on the harmonium and organ are produced in a similar manner. The exact cause of tremulous speech, as in emotion, or in that rery disagreeable habit of tremolo singing, which may be noted as (a;), etc., I am not yet able to assign. The bleating voice ( $\varepsilon^{\mathrm{a}}$ ) is another species of trill, the suarl ( $\varepsilon_{8}$ ) another," sonat hie dé nāre canina lītera," Pers 1, 109.
${ }^{2}$ The faith in a prouounced $r$ dies hard. A great deal of difficulty is felt about Gloucester, Wiltshire, and Dorsetshire. To my own ears the real sound of vocal $r$, that is, $r$ when not preceding a consonant, is in these districts really a vowel, and that vowel much resembles ( a ). But to say so seems to those who use the sound to imply that they do not pronounce $r$ at all, whereas they know, truly mough, that they do make a great difference in speech aecording as $r$ is or is not written, and hence they do pronounce
presumed transposition of $r$ and the rowel, as ren urn, red urd, reduces itself to the omission of $r$ and obscuration of the following rowel with a long rowel-glide, as (ron oən, red oəd). The rationale of this, and of all similar cases, being the inherent difficulty of trilling without some perceptible untrilled rowel preceding and following, just as for the Sanscrit ri (1146, $d^{\prime}$ ), as explained by the old grammarians. How can we tell that there is an interruption, unless there is a thread to interrupt? And then how easy to snip off the interruption and lengthen the thread! Certainly (әәп) is much easier than (.rəu), which readily becomes ( $\llcorner$ ə.rən, əLrən, əron, әәn). And thus the Scotch (.r) finally disappears in Devonshire!

The $r$ and $l$ readily unite with a preceding consonant, but some forms are little found. Although (bl) is easy and common, (rl) is not found (it is common in Dutch), and (wl-) seems to have ranished, a faint reminiscence of (w'l-) existing in Scoteh, with a problematic change to (fl-) in one word flunkey. No labial (lw-) in place of (wl-) has been reported. On the other hand, (w'r-) is said to occur in Scoteh, degenerating to (rr-, bhr) in Aberdeen, and the labial (rw-) and also (w'r-) are reported from Cumberland. There is really no more difficulty in the combinations (ml-, mr-) or (wl-, wr-) than in (bl-, br-), but they are simply nnusual. In every case there is a tendency to simultancous instead of suceessive utterance, when the organs can readily be posed accordingly, and this is especially the case for the ( t )-scries, so that ( $1 w$-, $\mathrm{r} w$-) are more likely to be heard than ( $w$ 'l-, w'r-), which rather resemble the efforts of a foreigner to pronounce an unusual combination, as in (1136, c).

The interchange of W and V is usually marked as a cockneyism, when occurring initially. Its American existence has been already shewn (1067, $d$. 1220, $d^{\prime}$ ). In Norfolk, the change of initial V to W, according to one authority (see No. 11, below), is regular, and in Essex and Kent it is frequent, but the change from W to $V$ is not so well known. The medial and final interchange also occurs, as in the Scotch (sláu•en) for sloven, and (da'u) for dore, and the Deronshire (roor) for row. The exact nature of the ( v ) in this case I have not been able to ascertain, because I have not examined 'uncorrupted ' peasants. It would be interesting to know whether the change is from (w) to ( $\Gamma$ ) direct, or through the mediation of (bh), as Dr. Beke asserts ( $1221, d$ ). We have certainly a change of (b) to ( r ), or a sound which is taken to be ( $\Gamma$ ), even if it were once (bh), in such words as (maa'r'l) for marble, which farours the original (bh) hypothesis; but this sound is such an incomprehensibility to most Englishmen, that it may be rery long before anything satisfactory is discovered in this direction. For philological purposes, and for Latin and Italian ${ }^{1}$ pronuuciation, the fact that hearers
their own final $r$, and never having heard another they are utterly perplexed by being told that they utter a vowel and not a trill, and perplex me in turn by their observations. More of this hereafter when considering these
counties. The varieties of $r$ are the most remarkable in English speech.
${ }^{1}$ In listening to a lecture delivered by Dr. Zerti, on 15 March, 1874, in which the English pronumciation was generally very good, I noticed wice,
do generally assert an interchange of ( $w, ~ v$ ) is of real value, whatever be the means of transit. The fact also of the very different degrees of pressure of the under lip on the upper teeth, already alluded to ( $1102, c .1103, c$ ), should be borne in mind, to which must be added the possibility of making a considerable buzz when saying (bli), by merely constricting the lips without touching the teeth.

The ear readily confuses hisses and buzzes arising from different sources. Those due to the central obstruction by the teeth in the case of $(\mathrm{f})$ and $(\mathrm{th})^{1}$ are closely allied. Hence we must not feel surprised at the Scotch (three) for from, or the Shropshire (throks, $i \cdot \cdot \mathrm{~s}^{\prime} \mathrm{lz}$ ) for frocks, thistles. ${ }^{2}$ The change of (s) to a sound closely resembling (th) in the lisp arises merely from a defective organism or an affeeted adrance of the tongue; it is not dialectal.

The gutturals ( $\mathrm{kh} \mathrm{kjh} \mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~h}$ ) are only heard in Scotland, and the two latter are almost confined to the southern counties. Their voice forms have quite perished out. In the north of England no gutturals are now heard, though they existed in Dent within the memory of an aged man of science, Prof. Adam Sedgwick, whose death we have had to deplore since my quotations from his book were printed (suprà, pp. 289, n. 4; 311, n. 1). But though gone they have left an impression, partly as (i), partly as ( $0, \mathrm{u}$ ), and partly as (f), even in the receired dialect (213,a). This (f) is still more developed dialectally, and sometimes interchanges with (th). The old interchange with (s) has not hitherto been confirmed dialectally $(464, c)$. The appearance of (dhon, dhon) for yon, ags. geond, both in Scotch and Irish English (1242, b'), is very remarkable, and ought to point to a precious (gh) form, which properly generates ( J ) initially, but it may be otherwise derived. ${ }^{3}$ A similar abnormal generation of (shuu, shii) from ags. heó, through (gheóo,
invite, for rice, incite, with what sounded to me (and I was sitting very near to him) as a distinct (w); it may have been prefractural ( $u-$-), but it was certainly not (v), and it did not recall (bh). He called the Têdes (ve daz).
${ }^{1}$ The air escapes through a narrow central chink, of which one edge is sharp. The resulting sound is peculiar, and, according to Dr. W. II. Stone (lecture on Auscultation, delivered 22 Feb., 1874), immediately produces the effect called ægophony (or bleating sound) in the lungs, when examined stethoscopically, while a person is prononncing the letter. These teeth-hisses conscquently require much more attentive analysis to distinguish them from the sounds throngh a narrow, but unobstructed, central aperture, as ( $\mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{s}$, sh, kjh).
${ }_{2}{ }^{2}$ Mr. Mallam has also heard (fies'lz) in the Peak of Derbyshire and in North

East Cheshire. It is the only instance he can recollect of the change of (th) into (f) in the Peak.
${ }^{3} \Lambda \mathrm{~s} z$ in Scotch words remains as the representative of $z$, that is ags. $g$, so $y$ is the written form for $f$, as we see by mutilating this letter to $\rho$, which in MSS. interchanges with $y$ very often. We constantly write $y^{e}$ for re=the. So yon in Scoteh and the Belfast use is mere Seotch) may stand for $b o n$, and this for the accusative case of the ags. demonstrative pronown, so that yon man when called (dhon man) may be like them men used for thase men. This is merely thrown out as an alternative suggestion. A counter misreading of $p$ for $y$ was sugrested ( $639, d^{\prime}$ ), and has been confirmed by an actual inspection of the MS. loy Mr. Murray in 1871. Hence the use of doted $y$ in old MSS., to point out that it did not mean f .
gjhoo, gjhéo, gjhe'), has been already suggested (489, a. 1142, $c^{\prime}$ ). If this view be correct, the Laneashire (nhmu), the Leeds (shum) and the received (shii) she, have the same ags. heo for their origin.

The aspirate, in the form (rh), seems to be invariably used where written in Scotland, and not to be introduced where not written, except in the predicative (Hhaz) us. But we have scarcely passed the border before it darts in and out like sunlight on a cloudy day. Perhaps the intermediary is the simple jerk (ii). But certainly in most of Yorkshire, in Shropshire, in Derbyshire, in the Midland counties, in Lincolnshire, in Essex, in Kent, and in the Southwestern counties, it is almost extinct. One might be inclined to think that it is only the classification of "dropping aitches " among social sins which keeps the aspirate alive in the received dialect. And even there (wh) has failed to make its mark. Although acknowledged and used among a large section of people, (wh) is almost solely an artificial sound in our language. Curionsly enough, although it has nearly disappeared where written, it seems to reappear occasionally in some (u-) fractures, not merely as a remnant of $h$, as when ags. hám crops up as (whóo'm) home, but where there is no original $h$, as when ags. âte becomes (whóo'ts), oats. This is, however, not usual. The familiar dialectal writing whoam, whoats, of course proves nothing; but from Mr. C. C. Robinson, for Yorkshire, I heard a distinct (wh) in such words as he has so written below.

According to the same authority, there seems also to be in the very vulgar form of Leeds dialect an inserted (ㅍ) jerk after certain consonants, where ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) are lost in a permissive ( $(\mathrm{r})$, see (1261, $d^{\prime}$ ), and other curious phenomena oceur, which will be detailed hereafter. This jerk (н) certainly often occurs after consonants in Irish, and requires eareful investigation, in relation to the Indian postaspirated consonants ( $1137, c$ ), and their subsequent treatment in European languages.

Before ( $\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{i}$ ), the consonantal ( $\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{J}$ ) are very apt to disappear, and where that is the ease, it may be rash to insist very strongly on the difference between these consonants, and the con-sonants, or prefraetural (u-, i-). Where however (wu-, Ji-) oceur, the consonantal change is effected.

The contributions made to consonantal philology by the observations on dialects are therefore not either numerous or novel. They are chiefly confirmatory. The great points of interest are, the coexistence and distinct appreciation of ( $t, t, d$ ) in the same or adjacent dialects; the rowelless syllable ( $t$ ) in Yorkshire, Cumberland, and Derbyshire ; the treatment of $r$; the confusion of ( $w, r$ ); the passage of the guttural into ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{th}, \mathrm{dh}$ ) ; and the flitting treatment of $h$, wh.

The real bearing of these changes upon general philology can be distinetly felt only when something like a general survey of consonauts and their relation to rowels has been obtained. Curiously eclectic as we have found languages to be in the use of vowels (1297, a), this is still more the case in relation to consonants.

Eren the great relations between roiced and voiceless consonants are very insufficiently carricd out in individual languages, and much curious information would result from "consonant identifications" in the various languages of the world similar to those " vowel identifications" preciously furnished (pp. 1300-7). In default of this, some systematic arrangement must be attempted. It seems to me that we have not yet a sufficient knowledge of the relations of consonants to each other and to rowels to do this satisfactorily. At any rate, I have not been able to form any system satisfactory to myself, which should embrace the extremely complicated phenomena with which I have become practically acquainted, while numerous others, apparently still more complicated, remain so vaguely described or so inaccessible as to elude me altogether. Much is mere conjecture. I prefer then not to present any systematic arrangement of my own, but to give such an account of different systems formed by others as will assist the reader in understanding the nature of the present changes.

The distinction between rowels and consonants is not in general well understood. The word 'consonant' is used in the vaguest possible manner, sometimes, as appears to me, merely to designate diphthongising vowels which have not the stress, as (i) in the fractures (iá, ái), or (', o), in ( $i i^{\prime}$, ía), called $y, r$, respectively. The controversy as to where $h$ is or is not "a letter," a vowel, or a consonant, points to this. Hence the importance of first inquiring what are the classes of sounds which we have to consider. I cannot suppose that the following analysis is exhaustive; but it will at least answer the present purpose better than any other which I could cite. For many details see pp. 1128, sqq.

## Analysis of Speech Sounds.

The sensation of sound is due, generally, to an undulatory motion of the atmosphere striking the drum-skin of the ear. This motion itself is often called sound. The classes of sounds here considered are those in which the undulatory motion is produced by a speaker, throngh his vocal organs.

1. Air independent of respiration. The air within the mouth, not drawn in or driven out, and hence at rest so far as respiration is concerned, may be set in motion by clicks or smacks ( $\ddagger \mathrm{h}$ ), or cheek puffis ( $\equiv$ ), as in using the blowpipe [the symbol ( $\equiv$ ) typifies, by the upper and lower lines, the two cheeks pressing ont a stream of air, the central line, between them], or implosions (' h ), see $(1128, b, c)$. All of these help to form consonants. The clicks and muffs form Prof. Haldeman's "independent rowels" (Anal. Orth. art. 445-8).
2. Air inspired. The air drawn into the mouth may meet with obstacles, or
pass through channels, creating sonndwaves, in a way not at all peculiar to speech, which the resonance chambers of the mouth, etc., may sufficiently reinforce to be andible ('i), as in chirps, inspired whistles, sobs, gasps, etc., see $(1128, a)$, and may be nasal, as in snuffling ( ${ }^{i} i_{6}$ ), or orinasal ( $\Lambda$ ) and fluttering ( $\sigma_{6}$ ), as in snores ( ${ }^{\circ} \Lambda_{\dot{G}}$ ), etc.
3. Air expircd.
a. Glottids (1129, $c^{\prime}$ ), including the bellows action of the lungs, continuous, varying in force, jerked (ir), ete., and the motion of the vocal chords towards each other, or their retention in fixed positions, and the same for the fissura laryngea or cartilaginous glottis, and all modifications of expiration which take place within the larynx itself. These scem to have been first carefully considered and distinguished, as part of an alphabetic system, by Brücke (p. 10 of op.cit. on p. 1287, n. 2), and have already been dwelt upon at some length ( $1129, c^{\prime}$ ), but not exhaustively. Some
of these ( $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{n} \mathrm{h} \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{uh}$ ) have been usually considered as consonants.
b. Undifferentiated Glottal sounds, as flatus ('h), wheeze (' $h$ ), whisper ('h $h$ ), buzz (.h), bleat ( h ), voice ('h), nasal voice ('h), nasal bleat ( $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{f}}$ ). Of these (' $h, \varepsilon_{\ell} \mathrm{h}$ ), are usually taken as consonants $(h, 8)$.
c. Differentiated Glottal sounds.
i.). The differentiation takes place by the action of resonance chambers, as already explained (p. 1276), on its way to the external air through the open mouth, nose, or both, and meeting with more or less obstruction on the way.

When the resonance chambers are best suited to reinforce voice, the results are generally called vowels; when best suited for audible flatus, the results are called consonants. The rowel and consonant positions shade into each other insensibly, and amy glottal sound may be modified by either set of positions. Between perfect vowel, as (a), and perfect hiss, as (s), there can be no mistake. The letters $(r, l)$ and even ( z ) occasionally fulfil the linguistic function of rowels. The contacts between vowels and consonants are especially:
voiced ( $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{J}, \mathrm{gjh}$ ) and flated ("i, Jh, $\mathrm{kJfh}_{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{kjlh}, \mathrm{kh}, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ) ; and also through (kjh) to (sh, s), etc.;
voiced ( $\mathbf{u}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{v}$ ) or ( $\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{g} u \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{~g} u$, $g$ ), or ( $\mathrm{Au}_{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{bh}, \mathrm{b}$ ) ; roiceless ('"u, wh, f), or ("u, wh, $\mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{k} w, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ), or (" $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{u}}$, $\mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{pI}$ ), according as we start with English (u) having the back of the tongue raised, or German ( $A_{1}$ ) with the tongue depressed ; also roiced ( $\mathbf{y}, \mathrm{wj}$, $\mathrm{bh}, \mathrm{b}$ ) and voiceless ('" $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{wjh}, \mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{pI}$ );
voiced ( $a, ~ \partial$ ) lead to ( $r_{c},(r, r)$, and thence to ('l, l), and so to (d) and the coronals and dentals, or through ( $\mathrm{a}, \partial$, $\infty)$ to lip, and even guttural consonants, etc., and when voiceless to (' $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{H}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ ), and thence either to (kh), etc., or to ( $\mathrm{Jh}, \mathrm{sh}$ ), etc.

## Note on Symbolisation.

Palaeotype is meant to be a mere convenient system of notation without implying any system. Thus (h) has been used as a mere diaeritic without any constant meaning, and sometimes as an occasional mere supporter of signs which would otherwise become contused, as ('h 'h 'h), etc. On the other hand, some diacrities, as ( $\mathrm{j} w u \mathrm{j}$ ), have been used with tolerable consistency. Italics and small capital letters are used as convenience dictated and with no systematic feeling or intention.
ii.). Glottal sounds differentiated by passing into the closed month, so that they cannot be continued beyond a short time, because they condense the air too much, and when forced produce the inflatus of $(1113, b)$. These are the sonant consonants (b, d, g), or (' b , 'd, ' g ), as distinguished from the imploded ('p, 't, ' $k$ ). They may also be bleated, as ( $\varepsilon_{\varepsilon}$, $\varepsilon_{\varepsilon}^{d}, \varepsilon^{g}$ ).
d. Non-glottal sounds differentiated by resonance chambers, as in expired whistles, see also (2). When they reach the state of musical whistles, they cease to be real speech sounds.
$e$. All the above are distinguished by pitch, force, and length, and by continuous or discontinuous changes. The continued sounds, due to the maintenance of the same resonance chamber independently of pitch or force, and changing discontinuously, so far as the resonance is concerned, are the theorist's vowels and consonants, in this class; but even in these, pitch and force generally alter continnously. The changing or gliding sounds due to continuous change of form of resonance chamber are the most common in actual speech.
4. Air checked. The air passing through an opening is gradually totally shut off or obstrncted, or a total obstruction is gradually removed. This may take place in the glottis (;), by closing the rocal ehords or bringing down the epiglottis, or both, and in various ways in the mouth, producing the mute consonants ( $p, t, k$ ), etc. These mutes make themselves felt solely by gliding differentiations of glottal sounds, due to contmuous changes in the form of the resonance chamber passing from perfect silence for the mute, to perfect resonance for the vowel, and vice versâ (1111, $e^{\prime}$ ).

Whether there appear to be any systematic character or not in the sign, my own wish is that each symbol should be regarded as one of Linneus's 'trivial names,' merely denotative, not connotative; shewing a fact, not suggesting a theory. My letter denotes a certain sound, or mode of utterance. How that sound or mode of utterance is to be systematically placed is a totally different question. My symbols lend themselves to any system, because they do not pretend to belong to a peculiar
system of their own. In this respect they differ essentially from Brücke's and Bell's, and even from Lepsius's and Prince L. L. Bonaparte's or the historical suggestious of Prof. Halde-
man. Palaeotype letters are then merely tools by which we may handle sounds on paper, pending our acquisition of sufficient knowledge to understand their systematic relations.

The classification of consonants generally relates to those in 3 and 4 , and refers to the positions of the obstructive organs, and the accompanying flatus or voice, or absence of both. It is fortunately very easy to make a simple arrangement of this kind, which is essential as an elementary guide, but it is very difficult to fit into one scheme the immense variety of forms found in actual use, of which comparatively few are familiar to any one systematiser. In no language perhaps occur sufficient consonants to construct a perfect scheme. But in the old Sanscrit tongue, as reduced to the Devanâgarî character, there was a grand development of the surd (voiceless) and sonant (voiced) series of the classes in 4 , and $3, c$, ii. abore, and a full conception of the differences of flatus, voice, and, as I think, bleat, as well as nasality. The Indian put the earlier European phonologists to shame in this respect. They were very acute, not merely in the analysis, but in the synthesis of sounds, aud, as far as their means extended, did not hesitate to indicate every change, and cren pointed out in their commentaries under what circumstances sounds were generated synthetically which had no alphabetic character. That this generative action is in full force in India at the present day we have already seen in remarkable instances ( $1138, b^{\prime}$ to $1139, b^{\prime}$ ). But the language was extremely deficient in rowels, in diphthongs, in buzzes, and in glottids, and hence was not suited as the basis of a classification which should include even Semitic sounds. Still, as one of the earliest, and down to the present day one of the acutest, and as embracing the earliest forms of speech to which our own language belonged, it should be first considered. If the old commentators had paid equal attention to the Indian dialects, little would have remained to be done now.

In the following table I have endeavoured to exhibit the old Indian classification, giving it first in the transcription of Sanscrit used by Prof. Whitney, and secondly in the palaeotypic equivalents which result from my own investigations (pp. 1136-1140, and places there cited). And as the old phonological treatises are not remarkably accessible, I give the text and translation of the rules bearing on this classification in Prof. Whitney's Atharva-Vèda Prâtiçalkhya, with additions from his notes. The gencral reader will thus, for the first time, be put into a position to understand an early native classification of an alphabetic system which is the foundation of his own.

In this classification the repetition of some letters in different classes is due to difference of opinion in native commentators. In the palacotypic interpretation the cerebrals are still distinguished as (T D N R), as proposed on ( $1096, c^{\prime}$ ). The $y v$ are marked as ( $\mathbf{J} \mathbf{v}$ ), but I believe them to have been originally diphthougising vowels, as (ia ái, uá áu), and to have been only recently squeezed into ( $\quad$ v), compare ( $1103, d)$. Also the (ee oo) are retained, because it is clear
that these junctures of (ái áu) were established at the time of the old rules cited, though the original diphthongal form admits of no doubt. When (s i ii ee áai) come together, therefore, in this table, they properly illustrate the rowel (i) only, of which (ii) is the mere prolongation; ( J ) and (áai) shew the initial and final diphthongising forms, and (ee) the juncture from (ái). Similarly for (r u un oo áau).

## Sanscrit systematic arrangement of the Alphabet, as deduced from the Rules of the Indian Phonologists.

(1.) Prof. Whitney's Symbols.

|  | Guttural. | Palatal. | Lingual. | Dental. | Labial. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| surd | $k$ | $c$ |  | $t$ | $p$ |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { surd-aspirate and } \\ \text { surd-spirant } \end{array}\right\}$ | kh hek | ch ¢ | $t h$ sh | $t h \mathrm{~s}$ | $p h l p$ | \% |
| sonant | $g$ a $\hat{a} \mathrm{r}$ ! | $j y i \hat{i} e \hat{u} i$ | $d r r$ | $d \times r l ?$ | bvu ̂̀oûu |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { sonant - aspirate, } \\ \text { and }\end{array}\right\}$ |  | jh | $\xrightarrow{d} h$ | $d / h$ |  | $h$ |
| sonant-spirant nasal | i | $\bar{n}$ | $n$ | $n$ | $m$ | $\dot{m}$ |

(2.) Presumed Palaeolypic Equivalents.

|  | Guttural. | Palatal. | Coronal. | Dental. | Labial. | Undiffe- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mute | k | kf |  |  | p |  |
| Flated | klh kh | kJh Jh. | T[ ${ }^{\text {h }}$ sh | , tri s | pl ${ }^{\text {h }} \mathrm{ph}$ | $\mathrm{l}^{\text {h }}$ |
| Toiced | $g$ a aa 'r 'l | $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{J}$ i ii ee áai | D R 'R | $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} \mathrm{d} & 1^{1}, \\ l^{1}, \\ l^{r} \end{array}\right\}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{cccc} b & \text { v } & \text { un } \\ \text { oo } & \text { áau } \end{array}\right\}$ | ['h] |
| Bleated | g¢ | głe |  | d ${ }_{8}$ | be | $\varepsilon$ |
| Noscd | q | nJ | N |  | m | (1) |

Rules of the Indian Phonologists,

Taken, Sanscrit and English, from Prof. Whitney, op. cit. (1131, c'), the parts between inverted commas being the Sanscrit text transliterated as above and Prof. Whitney's translation, the rest (except references to this work, palaeotype, and parts included in [],) being an abridgment of some of the information in I'rof. Whitney's notes on the rules. Only such rules are given as bear upon the classification, and they are referred to as i. 3, book the first, rule the third, etc.
i. 3. "padântyah padyah. A letter capable of occurring at the end of a word is called a final (padya)."
i. 4. "anlkârah svarah padyah. Any rowel, excepting !, may occur as final." The Rik Pr. also excepts $r$ long.
i. $\overline{\text {. }}$ "lakâravisarjanîyau ka. Also $l$ and visarjaniya."
i. 6. "sparçâh prathamottamâh. Of the mutes, the first and last of each series," that is, $k!t p, n n n m$; $c$ and $\tilde{n}$ being excepted by the following rule.
i. 7. "na cavargah. Excepting the palatal series," that is, $c$ and $\bar{n}$, the $c h$, $j h$, being excluded by previous rule.
i. 10. "dvitîyacaturthâh soshmânạh. The second and fourth of each series are aspirates" [see (1131, $\left.c^{\circ}\right)$ for comments].
i. 11. "uttamá anunâsikâh. The last in each scrics is nasal." The Rik and Vâj. Pr. describe the nasal mutes as anunâsiki, as does the Tâitt. Pr., including with them amustâra.
i. 12. 13. "¢rûso-ghoshebvanupradînah ; nâdo ghoshavatsvareshu. In the surd consonauts the emission is breath; in the sonant consonants and vowels it is sound." [The literal rendering of
'surd,' root ceras, is ' breathed,' that is, 'flated;' of 'sonant,' root nad, is 'spoken,' that is, ' roiced;' of 'emission,' anuprûdana, is ' emitted material;' of aghosha, is 'without sound,' that is, mute; and of ghoshavant, is 'sounding.' It is evident that where no voice was used, the result was not considered sound proper.] The commentator enumerates the sonants as vowels, sonant mutes, semivowels, $h$, and the yamas of $g$ and $g h$. The yamas, or 'twins,' are thus defined in Tâitt. Pr.: " after a mute not nasal, when followed by a nasal, are inserted in each case nose sounds (nâsikya) ; these some call yamas," [that is, nasalised voice differentiated according to the preceding mute, before being differentiated according to the following, so that atma requires a generated $n$ to be inserted between $t$ and $m$, thus (atnma).]
i. 18. "mukhe viçeshâh karanasya. In the mouth there are differences of producing organ." 'That is position (sthana) to which approach is made ; that is organ (karana) by which approach is made,' according to the commentator.
i. 19. "kanthyânâmadharakanthah. Of the throat-sounds, the lower part of the throat is the producing organ." [See discussion (1134, b-1135, b).]
i. 20. "jiȟeâmûlı̂yânần hanumûlam. Of the gutturals, the base of the jaw is the producing organ." The word translated gutturals means 'formed at the base of the tongue.' The commentator assigns as gutturals the $r$ vowels, see ( $1146, c^{c^{\circ}}$ ), the guttural mutes, $k$ kh $g g h n$ n, the jihrâmûlîya 'spirant,' or (kh), see (1134, a), and the vowel !. By hamumûla, 'root or base of the jaw, must be here understood, it should seem, the posterior edge of the hard palate.
i. 21. "tûlavyânâin madhyajihram. Of the palatals, the middle of the tongue is the producing organ." The commentator enumerates e $\hat{a} i y$, ¢ $c c h j$ $j h n \vec{n}$ and the vowel $i$. [The expression ' middle of the tongue' exactly corresponds to the modern sound described ( $1120, c$ ) ; tâlu is 'palate.']
i. 22. " mûrdhamyânain jihvâgrain prativcshtitam. Of the linguals, the tip of the tongue, rolled back, is the producing organ." [Seethediscussiou(1094, $a-$ 1096, c).] The word mûrdhan means 'head,' hence an exact translation of mûrdhanya would be 'capital.' Müller holds mûrdhan to be used directly for
'dome of the palate,' but it must be so taken, if at all, indirectly, as the highest point of the head which the tongue is capable of reaching. [Hence my term 'coronal' ( $1096, c)$.$] The$ commentator gives as this series $s h, t$ $t h d d h n$, and fortifies his assertion by adding the half verse mûrdhasthânam shakârasya t!avargasya tathâ matam. They are known in all the Pr. by the same name, and the Vâj. Pr. and Tâitt. Pr. describe them in the same manner. [The question of inversion or simple retraction of tongue-Prof. Whitney uses the ambiguous term 'reversion'-depends on the meaning of prativeshtitam=back-rolled. The term is too vague, and may mean a further retraction than in the English (t).] The semivowel $r$ and vowel $r$ are in the Paninean scheme.
i. 23. "shakûrasya dronikư. Of sh, the trough-shaped tongue is the producing organ," from drona, a 'wooden tub or trough.'
i. 24. "dantyânâm jihvoâgnain prastirnam. Of the dentals, the tip of the tongue thrust forward is the producing organ." The commentator gives the series $l s, t$ th $d d h n$, and the Vâj. Pr. adds $l$. The Rik Pr. makes the class consist of $l s r, t$ th $d d h n$. The Taitt. Pr. defines the same letters, except $r$, as formed, dantamûleshu, 'at the roots of the teeth' [that is, 'alveolar,' rather than 'dental'], the $t$-series, and $s$ as produced by the tip, and the $l$ as produced with the middle of the tongue. [This ought to make it palatal $=(\mathrm{lj})$.]
i. 25. "oshṭhyânâmdharaushṭam (or -oshthyam). Of the labials, the lower lip is the producing organ." The labials are o $\hat{\epsilon} u, p p h b b h$, the upadhmûnîya spirant [(ph), see (1132, b)], and the vowel $u \hat{u}$. Here $v$ is omitted, doubtless by fault of copyist, as it is not otherwise placed. The Vâj. Pr. adds further, that in the utterance of $v$ the tips of the teeth are employed, and so in Tâitt. Pr., its commentator explaining that in the utterance of the letter the points of the upper teeth are placed on the edge of the lower lip. [Sce discussion (1103, c).]
i. 26. "nâsikyânûin nâsikâ. Of the nose-sounds, the nose is the producing organ." The commentator cites n $^{n} n$ $n \mathrm{~m}$, amsvara, and the gencrated nasals, that is, nutikya after $h$ i. 100, and yamas after niutes i. 99.
i. 27. "anunâsikânản mukhanâsikam. Of the nasalised sounds, the mouth and nose together are the producing organs." The Tâitt. Pr. says, " nasal quality is communicated by the unclosing of the дозе."
i. 28. "rephasya dantamûlâni. Of $r$, the roots of the teeth are the producing organs." There is a considerable difference of opinion respecting $r$ among Indian phonologists. Rik Pr. includes it among dentals as dantamúliya (see i. 24 above), but adds that others regard it as gingival. Yâj. Pr. makes it to be produced at roots of teeth by tip of tongue. Tâitt. Pr. by the tip and middle of tongue, close behind roots of teeth. The Paninean scheme makes it mûrdhanya. [See (1138, a). Probably several modes of forming $r$, dependent on the adjacent consonants, are confused under one symbol.]
i. 29. "sprshṭain sparçânâin karanam. In the case of mutes the organ forms a contact." From this contact sparça the mutes derive their name [literally, ' contact letters'].
i. 30. " îshatsprshṭamantahsthûnûm. In the case of the semirowels, it is partially in contact." The Rik Pr. calls it duhsprshturn, 'imperfectly or hardly in contact.' The word antahsth $\dot{u}$, ' intermediate, standing between,' as applied to the semivowels $y r l r$, is supposed to refer to their alphabetic arrangement, between the mutes and spirants, but more probably refers to their neither forming a complete contact like the mutes, nor an open position like the vowels.
i. 31. ushmanah vivtam lia. In the case of spirants it is also open." The $k a$ should make these îshatsprshtam, or partially open. The Taiitt. Pr. says the spirants, in their order, are uttered in the positions of the mutes, but with the middle part of the producing organ opened. The Rik I'r. includes the vowels amuszùra and spirants together, as produced without contact. The Rik I'r. makes the spirants to be $h$ (visarjanîya), h ḥk (jỉheâmûliya), ¢, sh,
$s$, and $h p$ (upadlmániya), and anusvâra; the Vâj. Pr. only f sh $s h$; the Tûitt. Pr. omits the visarjaniya and anusuâra.
i. 32. "svarâụán lia. In the case of the vowels also it is open."
i. 33. "eke sprshtam. Some consider it as forming a contact." No one of the other treatises favours this obviously and grossly incorrect opinion.
i. 34. "ekûraukùrayorvir ṛtatamam. In the case of $e$ and $o$ it is very widely open.". [That is, these were even at that time very open vowels, compare (1137, a).]
i. 35. "tafo-pyâkarasya. And even more so, in the case of $a . "$
i. 36. "samvrto -kûrah. The $a$ is obscured." In Yâj. Pr. and Pâṇini, 1 is ordered to be treated as qualitatively the same as $\hat{A}$, implying that it was not so in practice. The Tâitt. and Rik Pr. do not notice any difference in the quality of $a, \hat{a}$.
i. 37. "sañsprshtarephmrvarnam. The $r$-vowels are combined with an $r$." [This seems to give ('r) or (' $r$ r).]
i. 39. "salakaram?varnam. The tvowels are combined with an l." [This gives (', 1).]
i. 40. "samidhyaksturâni sainsprshtavarnimyekaramavadrertih. The diphthongs are composed of combined vowels ; their treatment is that of a simple vowel." Here saindhyakshara is literally 'syllable of combination,' and is the usual name for a diphthong, and samânakshara, 'homogeneous syllable,' is sometimes used for the simple vowel as opposed to the diphthong. The diphthongs are e o $\hat{u} i \hat{k} u$. [ Ot course originally (ái, áu, áai, áau).]
i. 41. "nâikùrâukârayoh sthânavidhan. Not so, however, with $\hat{u} i$ and a $u$, in a rule of position." The commentator's paraphrase is âikûrûthìurayoh sthânavidhâne ekavarnavad vẹttir. na bhavati. What the meaning and value of the rule is, is not altogether clear; it may forbid the inclusion of âi among palatals only, and âu among labials only, since they are also both throat-sounds.

Prof. Whitney, mored probably by lis study of this classification, scems to have dereloped from it his 'unitary' arrangement (1289, $d$ ), which is here given from the Journal of the American Oriental Society, vol. 8, p. 372, first in his own letters, and then in their palaeotypic equivalents. His position of $h$ depends upon his theory that it is "the common surd of all those sonant letters which are too open
to have each its own individual surd," see the discussion, beginning ( $1141, d^{\prime}$ ).

This scheme has the advantage of being a mere skcleton, and consequently evades most of the difficulties which arise when we attempt to elothe it in full. But as a skeleton, it will be found very useful and suggestive.


No systematic arrangement can be complete which disregards the Semitic series of sounds; but at present there is so much division of opinion among phonologists respecting them, and they differ so widely from Europeau usages, that it seems best to pass them over, especially as my own knowledge of them as heard from natives, is more than thirty years old, and was obtained at a time when my phonologic ideas were very crude. Lepsius, however, includes them in his general alphabet (Standard Alphabet, p. 76), which here follows in palaeotype, the Arabic sounds being given according to his (nuch disputed) theories. Lepsins's interest was chiefls transcriptive, and is only partly or incidentally physiological. He uses chiefly Roman, but some Greek and a few new characters, with diacritical dots, hooks, accents, marks, ete.

Consonants of Lepsius's General Alphabet.

| I. Faucales | explosivae v. dividuac |  |  | fricativac v. continuae |  |  | ancipitts. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { forte } \\ \& \end{gathered}$ | lenes. nasales. ; |  | fortes. <br> h rh | lenes. | semi ocales. |  |  |
|  |  | к |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| II. Gutturales | k | g | q |  | gh |  | $r$ |  |
| III. Palatales | kj | ${ }_{8} \mathrm{j}$ | qj | kjh sh shj | gjh zh zhj |  |  | 1 j |
| IV. Cerebrales <br> (Indicae) | T | D | s |  | $z \mathrm{~h}$ |  | Et | L |
| V. Linguales <br> (Arabicae) |  | $d(t)$ |  |  | $z, d \mathrm{~h}$ |  |  |  |
| Vi. Dentales | t | d | n | $s$, th | , x , dh |  |  |  |
| VII. Labiales | p | b | m |  | v | w |  |  |

Brücke (1287, $d^{\prime}$ ) has not given a tabular scheme, although he has developed a system of writing. His classification of consonants, in reference to his alphabetical signs, is here reproduced in brief, because it is strictly physiological, and because the state of the glottis is throughout carefully indicated.

1. Voiced consonants may be shut (verschusslust), continuant or fricative (reibungsgeräィsch), an L-sound, trilled (zitterlaut), or resonant in the nose (resonant), and may be articulated in three principal places:
a. With the lips, solely, or with lips and teeth.
b. With tip of tongue and palate, 1) alveolar, 2) cerebral, 3) dorsal, 4) dental.
c. With back of tongue and palate, 1) middle of hard palate, 2) back part of hard palate, 3) soft palate.

These are illustrated by signs, to be thus translated:
(b), lips shut.
(v), lips and teeth, fricative.
(m), lips, nasal.
(z), alveolar, fricative.
(dh), dental, fricative.
(1) dental, L-sound.
(r) dental, trill.
(s) back of tongue and middle of hard palate, fricative.
(r) back of tongue and soft palate, trill.
2 State of the larynx:
a. Closed glottis. Vocal chords in position for roice ('h); no sign.
b. Open glottis. Yocal chords apart as for breathing; its sign united with sign for ( $\partial$ ) gives German $h$ ('h) ; with sign for (b) gives sign for $p$, which is therefore ( p h h ) ; with sign for ( dh ) gives sign for (th).
c. Position for the wheezing breath (' $h$ ), which is taken to have the chords 'nicked in' by the arytenoid cartilages, and hence to be different from that described by Czermak (1130, b).
d. Position for whisper ("h), see (1128, $c^{\prime}$ ), which Brücke attributes to the Saxon letters regarded by Merkel as imploded (1097, $c^{\circ}$ ).
e. Larynx closed by epiglottis and
arytenoid cartilages (;), united with those shut consonants which do not come under (b). The check (;) and clear glottid (,) are not distinguished (1129, $\left.d^{\prime} .1130, a\right)$.
$f$. Trill of glottis (1).
$g$. The ain-action of glottis continued through the rowel $(\varepsilon)$, see ( $1134, d^{\prime}$ ), always united with a vowel.
$h$. Direction to put more metallic quality into the voice; [this affects the following rowel, and must be mainly contrived in the resonant chambers].
$i$. Direction to deepen, or put more roundness into the roice; [this is also mainly a question of the resonance chamber; these two last are for the effect of Arabic letters on the following rowel; the effect here intended seems to be the $(2)$ of $(1107, c)$, and is recognised as present in the Russian ( $\mathrm{Y}_{2}$ )].
3. Consonants with two places of articulation. "When a consonant has to be noted, for which there are two straits, one behiud the other, either of which separately would give its own fricative, the signs for each are written in succession." Thus (zh) is written as alveolar, between back of tongue and back of hard palate, fricative ; to which for (sh) is added: open glottis.

4 Consonants with double sound. As (grh), written: between back of tongue and back of hard palate, fricative, trill; to which in the case of (krh) is added: open larynx.

Compound sounds are expressed by groups of symbols; thus German $\dot{z}$, taken as $\left({ }_{1}, \mathrm{~s}\right)$, is : alveolar, shut, open glottis+alveolar, fricative, open glottis; ancient Greek $\zeta$, taken as ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}$ ), is: alveolar, shut, + alveolar, fricative. Italian $c$ before $e$, taken as (tsh), is : alveolar, shut, open glottis, + alveolar, between back of tongue and back of hard palate, fricative, open glottis, etc.

This extremely ingenious and philosophical method of writing, of which various specimens are given in numerous languages, printed in movable types, becomes, in Dr. Brücke's words, at least for his consonants, eine beredte Zeichensprache, literally, "a speech-endowed sign-language " - a term closely approaching to that chosen by Mr. Melville Bell, whose "Visible Speech" has been so much used.

On（1121，c）I found it neeessary to give a new palaeotypic symbol－ isation of Mr．Bell＇s columns 2 and 3，p．15，and on pp．1125－6 I had to reconsider some parts of cols． 5 and 9，which I have now still further studied．It will therefore be best to reproduce the palaeo－ typie equivalents of all his table on p．15，exeept the vowels．In the following table I annex Mr．Bell＇s own nomenclature，which may be compared with Brücke＇s．The eolumns and lines refer to Mr．Bell＇s symbols（ $15, a$ ）．

Mi．Mclville Bell＇s Consonants．

|  | Voiceless． |  |  |  | Voiced． |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \frac{\stackrel{4}{⿺}}{\underset{M}{0}} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 荷 | 苗 | 号 |  | 者。范 | ． | 二．0゙0 |  |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |  |
| primary a | kh | Jh | $\mathrm{r}_{0} \mathrm{l} 1$ | ph | gh | J | ro | bh | $g$ |
| mixed $b$ | kwh | S | sh | wh | $g w h$ | $z$ | zh | w | $h$ |
| divided | $l \mathrm{~h}$ | $l_{\text {l }} \mathrm{h}$ | lh | f | $l$ | $1 f$ | 1 | v | $i$ |
| $\underset{\text { divided }}{\operatorname{mixed}}\} d$ | $7 w \mathrm{~h}$ | th | $t \mathrm{~h}$ | fh | lwo | dh | $d \mathrm{~h}$ | rh | $k$ |
| shut $e$ | k | kJ | t | p | g | g． | d | b | $l$ |
| nasal $f$ | qh | qJh | nh | mh | I | qJ | n | m | $n$ |

Mr．Melville Bell＇s Aspirate，Glides，Modifiers．


Mr．Melville Bell＇s consonant arrange－ ment，as thus shewn，is based on the following distinctions．In the original symbols the open glottis is not considered in relation to the consonants，but voice－ less and voiced forms alone are symbol－ ised．He has subsequently added a mark for whispered as distinguished
from voiced forms，but he has not yet found it neeessary to distinguish the open glottis，except by adding his $9 a=$ （ $\mathrm{Y}_{1}$ ）or $5 f=\left({ }^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{h}\right)$ to the（ $1127, d$ ）shut consonant．Only four places of articu－ lation are distinguished，col． 1 back of tongue and palate，col． 2 front，that is， middle of tongue and palate，col． 3
point, that is, tip of tongue and palate, and col. 4 lips. But by signs for outer or advanced $\left({ }_{1}\right)=9 i$, and imer or retracted $(1)=9 k$, and for open $(1)=9 m$, or cluse $\left({ }^{3}\right)=9 l$, these are practically extended to 20 . Confining attention to the cousonants :
The lines $a, g$, are continuants with "the orgauic aperture contracted to a central chink," a voiceless, $g$ voiced.

Lines $c$ and $i$ are continuants with the "organic aperture divided by a central check." In the case of (l) this is very intelligible, but for (f) and (v), although there is the 'central check' in the shape of the teeth, this only acts as a sharp wiud squeezer, and makes the hiss or buzz more decided. See Dr. Stone's observations (1331, d). The union of ( $\mathbf{l}$ ) and ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) in one class is liable to considerable reclamation. Line $c$ is roiceless, and line $i$ roiced.

Lines $b, d$, voiceless, and $h, k$, voiced, give peculiar means of obtaining the simultaneous action of two of the former positions, of which the first mentioned in each case is the most prominent. These signs might be entirely dispensed with, and thus answer really to Brücke's third series ( $\left.1340, e^{\prime}\right)$. Thus for line $b,(\mathrm{krch})$ is taken to be ( $\mathrm{kh}+\mathrm{ph}$ ), but (wh) to be (ph+kh), and again (s) $=\left(\mathrm{sh}+\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{h}\right)$, but $(\mathrm{sh})=\left\langle\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{h}+\mathrm{Jh}\right)$. As respects these last, Mr. Graham Bell at least has just reversed the combination of the symbols ( $1121, c$ ). Again, for line $d$, we must suppose $(l w h)=(l \mathbf{h}+\mathrm{f})$, but $(\mathrm{fh})=(\mathrm{f}+\mathrm{l} \mathrm{h})$, and $(\mathrm{th})=(\mathrm{l} \mathrm{h} \mathrm{h}+\mathrm{lh})$, but $(t \mathrm{~h})=(\mathrm{lh}+\mathrm{l} \mathrm{h})$. The two last will probably be disputed. With regard to (th) Mr. Bell says (V.S. p. 58): "the 'front-mixed-divided' consonant (th) has its centre check at the tip of the tongue, and its apertures between the edges of the flattened point and the teeth or the upper gum:- the front of the tongue haring considerable convexity within the arch of the palate." It is difficult to see how the form of the symbol and its relation to ( Jh ) or (lh) shews this, unless (lh) is taken as very dental ( 1 lh ). Although the back of the tongue is raised for (th) almost as much as for ( Jh ), yet the action between the tongue and teeth is most marked, and the stream of air is only squeezed, not divided, by the teeth.

Lines $e$ voiceless and $l$ voiced are merely the ordinary shut positions, and lines $f$ voiceless and on voiced the corresponding nasal positions.

For the aspirate, glides and modifiers, after again considering the discussion on pp. 1125-8, respecting $5 a, f, 9 a$, $b, c, h, l, m$, and $10 c, e, f, I$ believe that the marks placed in the present table are the best palaeotypic equivalents of Mr. Bell's symbols, according to the principles developed in this chapter. Observe that the glides have all (') before them, which mark would be placed against or over the preceding or following rowel (1099, d). To agree with Mr. Bell's system of notation, voiced-consonant forms are given to all the glides, except $5 \pi, f, g, m=($ " $h$, ' h , " $w$, " $\Psi^{1}$ ), the last of which I was never able properly to separate from 5 a ("h), even when I heard Mr. Bell pronounce it. I have, however, in practice generally thought it best to use vowel-signs as marks of his glides, thus (áa) for (áro), (ái) for (áJ), (áu) for (aw). In fig. 4 of a plate accompanying Mr. A. Graham Bell's "Visible Speech as a means of communicating articulation to deaf mutes" (Washington, U.S. 1872, pp. 34), I find that in place of the glide $5 l$ in pole, ( $\mathbf{j} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{w l}$ ) according to Mr. Melville Bell, Mr. Graham Bell writes a vowel-sign small, answering exactly to (póul). This was first suggested, I believe, by Mr. M. Sweet. The use of ("h) for $5 f$ is my last appreciation of this sign, and agrees in the main with $\left(1127, b^{\prime}\right)$.

## MT: Melville Bell's Key-words.

The following list contains the examples by which Mr. Melville Bell illustrates these signs ( I.S. pp. 93-4), and for convenience I give them in the order of the above table, referring to column and line and anuexing the palacotype. When two palaeotypic signs are given, the first accurately translates Mr. Bell's sign; and the second gives the form I usually employ for the sound indicated by the example.

## Abbrviations.

|  | . American | it. | Italian |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Cockney | p. | Polish |
|  | English | pec. | peculiar |
|  | French | sc. | Scotch |
|  | a. Gaelic | sp. | Spanish |
|  | e. German | w. | Welsh |
|  | Hungarian | z. | Zulu |
| ir. Irish |  |  |  |
|  | Key | rds. |  |
| a. (kh) nach ge., pech sc. |  |  |  |
| b. (kuh) auch ge., sough sc. |  |  |  |

1c. (h) hiss of water fowl.
1 d. ( $l u \mathrm{~h})$.
$1 e .(\mathrm{k}) c, k, q, \mathrm{e},(\mathrm{k})=\mathrm{my}(\mathrm{kj})$ kind e .
$1 f$. (qh) sink e., compare ( $1141, a$ ).
$1 \mathrm{~g} .(\mathrm{gh})$ tage ge., (gh) $=\mathrm{my}$ (gjh) zeige ge., $\left(\right.$ gh $\left._{j}\right)=m y$ (grh) burred $r$.
1 h . (guh) variety of $g \mathrm{ge}$., and of defeetive $r$ e.
1i. (l) laogh ga., barred $l$ p.
$1 k$. (lw) labialised variety of $l$ ga.
1 l. (g) go e., (.g) $=\mathrm{my}$ (gj) guide e.
1m. (q) sing e.
$2 a$. (sh) ich ge. [I hear (ikjh), which would be Mr. Bell's (i,kh)].
$2 b$. (s) $s, c$, e., (s) ciudad sp. [doubtful].
2 c. (lyh) variety of defective $s$.
$2 d$. (th) thin e.
$2 e$. (kf) variety of $t$, see $(1120, b)$.
$2 f$. (qIfh) variety of [voiceless] $n$.
$2 g$. (J) yes e.
$2 h$. (z) zeal e., (iz) d, final, sp. [doubtful].
$2 i$. ( l y$)$ llano sp., gli it. [These sounds are ( lj ) or ( 1 l ), not ( $\mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{J}}$ ), the distinction consisting in the tip of the tongue touching the palate or gums for ( $\mathrm{lj}, \mathrm{lj}$ ), and being held down for ( $(\mathrm{I})$, the middle of tongue comes in contact with hard palate for all three.]
$2 k$. (dh) then e.
2 l. (gf) Magyar h. [properly (dj), see $2 i$.]
2m. (qI) Boulogne f. [The French sound is neither (qf) nor (qj), but (nj) or ( nj ), see 2 i.]
$3 \pi .\left(r_{0} h\right)$ théâtre f. [colloquially (rh', never with untrilled, ( $r_{\mathrm{o}}^{\mathrm{h}}$ )], $-r \cdot h$ w. [never untrilled in W elsh].

3 b. (sh) show e., chaud f.
3 c. (lh) temp/e f. [colloquially ( 1 lh )], felt e., see (1141, a).
$3 d$. (th) $l l$ w., $h l$ z., вee p. 756, n. 2.
3 e. ( t ) tie e. [The foreign (. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}$ ) do not seen to have been noticed.]
$3 f$. (nh) tent e. See ( $1141, a)$.
$3 g$. $\left(r_{0}\right)$ race e., $\left(r_{o}{ }_{c}\right)=m y(r) r$ sc.sp., etc.
$3 h$. (zh) pleasure e., jour f.
3 i. (1) lie e. [The foreign ( 1 , , 1 ) not noticed. See $3 e$.]
$3 k$. ( $d \mathrm{~h}$ ) $d h l$ z. $\operatorname{See}\left(756, d^{\prime}\right)$.
3 l. (d) die e. [The foreign ( d , "d ) not noticed. See 3 e.]
$3 m$. ( n ) sin e . [The foreign ( $\mathrm{n}, \ldots \mathrm{n}$ ) not noticed. Sce 3 e.]
$4 a$. (ph) variety of $f$ or wh. See ( $514, c^{\circ} .518, b .542, c .1099, c$ ).
4b. (wh) why e.
4 c. (f) $f i e e$.
$4 d$. (fh) gutturalised variety of $f$.
$4 e$. (p) pie e.
$4 f$. (mh) lamp e. (1141, $a$ ), mhm sc.
4 g. (bh) weg ge., $b$ sp.
$4 h$. (w) way e.
4 i. (v) vie e.
$4 \%$. (vh) gutturalised variety of $v$.
4 l. (b) buy e.
4m. (m) seem e.
5a. ("h) va'ry e. [that is (vée'h $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{r}}{ }^{2}$ ), for which I write (vee'ri), with the reduction of ('h) to (') for convenience, and the trilled (r)].
j $b$. (' $r r_{0}$ ) are, smooth burr, e. dialects [that is (áar) or (aar), as distinct from (aa. $\cdot \mathrm{r})$ ].
óc. ('J) die e. daye. [that is (dás dés), which I write (da'i dec'j)].
$5 d$. (' $r_{0}$ ) are e. [that is (aaro), which I write (a') or (aa), not distimguishing $5 a$, and $5 d]$.
5 e. ('bli) lui fr. [that is (lbhí) or (lbhi), in place of ( 1 rijí) or (lyi)].
$5 f$. ('h) p'aper ir. [that is (p'hææ-), where I hear ( $\mathrm{pH}^{\prime}$ 'hææ-) or (pIhrex-) ; hence this is the sign for Sanserit surd aspirates, see (1127, $\left.\left.b^{\prime}\right)\right]$.
5 g . (" $w$ ) now a. and c. [that is (ná $w)^{\text {! }}$, (or (næ"w) not quite (náu, næ'u)].
5 h . (' $r$ r $w$ ) not [exemplified, possibly a burred our (an $\left.r_{c} w\right)$ ].
5 i. ('wj) new north ir. [possibly (níwj) or (níy), found in Norfolk)].
$5 k$. (' $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}} w$ ) our e. [that is ( $\mathrm{amr}_{0} w$ ), my ( ${ }^{\prime}$ 'u')].
5 l. ('w) now e. [that is (náw), my (n' ${ }^{\prime} u$ )].
$5 m$. (" $\mathrm{x}^{1}$ ) are pec., " a semivowelised sound of 9 h. ." [See 9 h , the glide is shewn by the accent.]

9 a. ( $x_{1}$ ) he e. [The new symbal (м) is introduced to enable me to write Mr. Melville Bell's symbols $9 a, b, h$, and $5 m$, in accordance with his theories, which differ in this respeet so greatly from my own that my symbols, although I use them freely in transliterating passages written phonetically by him, will not serve the present purpose, when everything turns upon representing his notion of the formation
of the sounds．The new symbol （ッ）represents the passage of flatus，with a moderate degree of force，through＂the super－ glottal passage，＂or pharynx （that is，between the epiglottis and the position for（ $k$ ）or（ k ）， whence the form of the symbol）， independently of its subsequent differentiation．The open state of this passage is shewn as usual by adding on $9 m(1)$ thus： $\left(\mathrm{H}_{1}\right)$ ：Of course the effect of （ $\left.\mathrm{H}_{1} \mathrm{ii}\right)$ is nearly（bhii），or even （，＇＇hii）．No jerk（н）seems con－ templated．See（1125，$c^{\prime}$ ）for description．］
$9 b$ ．$\left(y^{1}\right)$ vowel whisper．［See $9 a$ ． Here the contraction of the super－glottal passage is shewn by adding $9 l$ ．See description （ $1126, b$ ）．The effect is nearly （．h）or（h）．The distinction between（ $\mathrm{r}_{1}, \mathrm{r}^{1}$ ）is marked by Bell＇s circular and elliptic form of symbol，see p．15．］
9 c．（；）bŭ＇er for buttcr，west of Scot－ land
9 d．（．）．This sign＂applied to any of the preceding consonants shews that the breath flows through the nose as well as through the symbolised configuration．The effeet is to dull the oral sibilla－ tion，and to deprive the transi－ tional action of percussiveness，＂ （ $Y_{\text {．S．p．55．）＂Partial nasality }}$ without guttural modification－ such as is heard in some of the American dialects，and from in－ dividual speakers－is repre－ sented by the ordinary nasal sign（．）placed after the affected vowel．＂（ibid．p．78．）
$9 c$ ．（1）．＂When the nasal valve is opened simultaneously with the formation of a vowel，the breath or voice issues simultaneously， partly through the nostrils，and partly through the oral configu－ ration．This，with a degree of ＇gliding＇semi－consonant con－ traction in the guttural passage， is the formation of the common French sounds represented by $n$ after a vowel letter．To in－ dicate the＇mixed nasal＇or naso－guttural quality of these elcments，the special symbol $9 e$
（1）is provided．This symbol ［see its shape on p ．15］is formed by uniting $9 a\left(\mathrm{M}^{1}\right)$ subordinately with the ordinary nasal sign （．）．＂（V．S．p．77．）Hence sys－ tematically it should be rendered by（ $\mathrm{m}_{6}{ }^{1}$ ）．
$9 f$ ．（＇h $v$ ）［no example］．
9 g ．（弓）．＂Symbol（弓）denotes a loose vibration or quiver of the organ to which the symbol applies． Thus the tongue vibrates against the front of the palate in form－ ing Scotch or Spanish R，＂this would make them to result from a striking and not a free reed action，and be（r），but Mr．Bell writes the equiralent of（ $r_{r}{ }_{3}$ ）； ＂the urula vibrates against the back of the tongue in producing the French R＇grasseyé＇［liter－ ally，＇lisped，＇］or the Northum－ brian＇burr＇（ $r$ ）．The lateral edges of the tongue vibrate in forming a close rariety of $L$ ；＂ ［this is apparently different from his $3 i=(1)$ ，and should be（ $\left.1^{-} \dot{\circ}\right)$ ］； ＂the lips vibrate when they are relaxed and closely approxi－ mated，（brh）；and in the same way the edges of the throat－ passage vibrate［？exact mean－ ing］，with a＇growling＇effect， when the current of breatl is intercepted by sufficiently close but loose approximation．Sym－ bol（j）thus refers to the element after which it is written；as （ ${ }^{\prime} h_{j}$ ）a flutter of the breath； （＇$h_{6}$ ）a quiver of the roice； （＇$\Psi^{1}{ }^{\prime}$ ）throat vibration；a＇gruff＇ whisper ；（＇ $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{\delta}}^{1}$ ）hoarse vibratory murmur ：－＇growling．＇＂（V．s． p．47．）
$9 h$ ．（＇ $\mathrm{x}^{1}$ ），variety of defective $r$ ，emis－ sion of roice with the throat contracted．See description （1126，$a^{\prime}$ ）．［See $9 a$ and $9 b$ ， to the last of which（＇）is pre－ fixed to shew the buzz．See also end of last quotation about 9 g ．The glide of this，of course，becomes（＂${ }^{2}$ ），see 5 m ．］
$9 i$ ．（ ），see examples to $1 e, g, l, 2 a$ ．
$9 k$ ．（），see（ $1098, b^{\prime}$ ）．
9 l．（ ${ }^{1}$ ），see（ $1107, b$ ）．
$10 a$ to $m$ ．［no special examples are given］．

In the preceding systems we commenced with an acnte ancient classification confined essentially to one language, but that the most important for European investigations, the Sanscrit ; and from this proceeded to Prof. Whitney's skeleton arrangement, which contemplated some of the derived languages. Thence we passed to Lepsius's, which embraced the Semitic as well as the Aryan forms of speech, but was also incomplete and sketchy. From this we proceeded to two physiological arrangements. Dr. Brücke was mainly infuenced by German habits, and, as shewn by his examples, his acquaintance with other European pronunciations, and even with middle and south German habits, left much to be desired. He had, howerer, endearoured to examine the Arabic sounds with great care. His consouantal scheme professed to be purely physiological, and hence to be applicable to all languages, although his vowel scheme, founded on the triangle already exhibited (1287, c), was purely literary. Mr. Melville Bell's scheme is physiological both for vowels and consonants, and, though his physiological knowledge is of course greatly inferior to that of such an eminent professional physiologist as Brücke, and hence makes default in hidden laryngal actions, he has produced a system which is admirable in its general arrangements. But it is quite impossible that any one with a limited knowledge of the living habits of spcakers can succeed even in the analysis, much less in the synthesis, of spoken sounds. In pondering over the possibilities of rocal effects producible by our organs of speceh, we are constantly liable to omit forms quite common to other nations, because they are totally unfamiliar to ourselves, while we may excogitate theoretical someds which no one has ever adopted. I shall conclude, therefore, by giving two arrangements of consonants which have been chiefly formed by an examination of sounds heard, and not so much by hypothetical construction. Of course these two systems are not purely observational or purely literary. Both schemes ineritably contain some theoretical sounds suggested by others observed, and both elassifications are more or less founded on the organs in or near contact.

The first of these is Prof. Haldeman's (1186, d), which has already been given for English only (1189, c), so that no long explanations will be necessary. The great peculiarities of Prof. Haldeman's investigations are-1) an examination of literary languages, when possible by personal andition; 2) an examination of many North Americau Indian languages, which other phonologists have disregarded, but which are full of curious phenomena; 3) great attention to the synthetic effects of specch sounds in morlifying their character, and to synthesis in general; 4) in notation, an endeavour to make his symbols a real extension of the Roman alphabet, to the extent of not using any symbol in an un-Latin sense, according to his own theory of Latin pronunciation.

The following table is taken from Art. 577, compared with Art. 193a., of lis Analytic Orthography. It was first published by him in the Limaean Record of Pennsylvania College, for June, 1846.
Prof. Haldeman's Consonant System.


## Key-vords and Explanations,

-Arranged by the number of line and letter of column.
1a. ( $\mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{\prime}}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{\prime}}$ ), nasal ( w ) as a separate element, and as a glide. "The effort to produce vocality may, perhaps, be transferred from the glottis to the contact, so that instead of ( $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ ), a modified ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ ) will occur, made with the points of contact (as the lips) flattened against each other, producing what we call a fut sound" (art. 181). In the case of the German, it is considered by Brücke as a whisper, and this notation is given by me, and by Merkel as an implosion (1097, $c^{\prime}$ ). This is au element in Prof. Haldeman's classification, and he marks the lines 1,$2 ; 5,6$; $1^{\prime}, 2^{\prime} ; 5^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}$, as having flut sounds, in his theoretical scheme, art. 193a.
$1 f .\left(\mathrm{J}_{16}\right)$, nasalised ( $\mathrm{J}_{1}$ ), or $5 f$, which see.

1 g . ( $\mathrm{J}_{6}{ }_{6} \mathrm{~J}_{6}$ ), nasalised ( $J$ ) as a separate form, and as a glide. "Nasal ( $\mathrm{J}_{\mathrm{t}}$ ) occurs in Jakutiseh, we have heard it in Cherokee" (art. 546a).

5 a. (w 'w), the (w) as a separate element, and as a glide, see ( $1193, b^{\prime}$ ).
$5 b$. (1), "formed by a light contact of the tip of the tongue at or near the base of the upper teeth " (art. 469 a ).
( ${ }^{1}$ r), " an intermediate somnd in Samojedic, which has more of the (smooth?) $r$ than l, although both are heard simultaneously" (art. 477), see (1133, a). Prof. H. uses the capital symbol l , made by cutting an h .

5 c. (r . $\left.{ }^{\prime} x\right)$, see $(1194, d)$, where they are $16 \mathrm{c}, 17 \mathrm{c}, 18 \mathrm{c}$.
$5 d$. (l), Polish barred $l$, judged to belong to the Arabic.
$5 e$. (L), supposed Sanscrit $l$ with inverted tongue.
$5 f$. ( $\mathrm{J}_{1}$ ), see ( $1195, d^{\prime}$ ).
5 g . ( $\mathrm{J}(\mathrm{J})$, the ( J ) as a separate element, and as a glide, see (1193, $c^{\prime}$ ).

6 b. ( 7 hh ), "a vocal aspirate lh, which we attribute provisionally to Irish, its surd cognate being Welsh" (art. 198). "We think it occurs sonant in Irish, where it is considered to be a kind of $d "$ (art. 474). Hence it is assumed to be the same as the Manx ( (hb), sce (756, $d^{\prime}$ ), where note that (lhh) is, through a mistake on my part, erroneously said to occur in Manx.
$6 c$. (rzh), more properly ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{zh}}$ ), the Polish rz, (art. 512), [considered as
(zh) with the tip of tongue trilled, as it seemed to me when I heard it, but I have since been assured, though I have not personally observed, that the ( $r$ ) and (zh) are separate, and successive, not simultaneous].

7 i. ()), "hiatus is a break or pause commonly caused by dropping an intermediate element, and not closiug the remainder " (art. 560).

8 a. (wh), see (1194, b).
8 b. (lhh), "the surd Welsh aspirate ll. We have heard the Welsh $l l$ in Creek Choctaw and Cherokee" (art. 474 ), see therefore ( 756, n. 2). "The following are examples from the musical Creek (an English name), more correctly (maskooki), in which the name of the 'large river,' Withlacoochee, and 'figured rock river,' Chattahoochee, are respectively (úslhhlaku•tsi tsaturhu•tsi); the former from (úswa) water, aud (lhhlaki) large, (lhhlakima-нhi) larger, (lhhlaki a) largest. All the vowels are short." (art. 475.) "We are doubtful whether the French $l, r$, of simple, mailre, are whispered or surd aspirate," that is, whether they belong to lines 7 or 8 , "but we incline to the former" (art. 476). This would give $7 b=(\mathrm{lh}), 7 c=(\mathrm{rh})$, and make $8 b=$ (lhh), and $8 c=(\mathrm{rhh})$, a corresponding sound.
$8 c$. (rhh). "The Welsh surd aspirate $r h$ may be the smooth element" [that is, the lenis or $7 c$ ]. "We do not remember its character on this point," see (p. 759, n. 1).
(rsh). The surd of $6 c$, which see.
$8 f .(\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{h})$, see ( $\left.1195, d^{\prime}\right)$.
8 g. (Jh), see ( $1194, b$ ).
$8 h$. (h), "the Sanscrit visarga" (art. 571 ), see ( $1132, b^{\prime}$ ).

8 i. (нh, $h$ ), see (1196, a).
$1^{\prime}$ a. (m), usual.
$1^{\prime} b$. (n), usual, see $5 b$ for dentality.
1 ' d. (k), "Lepsius adds a (theoretic") $n$ to the [Arabic lingual] series" (art. 489).
$1^{\prime} e$. ( v$)$, presumed Sanscrit cerebral $n$ with inverted tongue.
$1^{\prime} f$. ( $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ), " a Sanscrit letter, which should be located farther back than $r$, s. It may have been a French $j$ nasal affate ('zh )" (art. 198). The Sanscrit character given is that which I now attribute to ( $q \upharpoonright$ ), see ( $1137, c^{\circ}$ ).
$1^{\prime} g$. (q), usual sing.

2' $b$. ( $n \mathrm{hh}$ ). "Compare Albanian nj, ${ }^{1}$ 。 (one) a nasal syllable" (art. 197). The character here given is chosen to harmonise with the sonant $(l \mathrm{hh})=8 \mathrm{~b}$.
4. a. (mh), voiceless (m).
$4^{\prime} \ell$. ( nh ), voiceless ( u ).
$5^{\prime}$ ' $a$. (b), usual.
$5^{\prime}$ b. (d), usual.
$5^{\prime}$ d. (d), Arabic lingual.
$5^{\prime} e$. (D), presumed Sauscrit cerebral with inverted tongue.
$\overline{5}^{\prime} g$. (g), usual.
6' a. (bh,) German $w$, Ellenic (Romaic) $\beta$, the sonant of $\phi$. See (Arts. 126, 127, 451).
(४), English $v$.
$6^{\prime}$ c. (z), usual.
(zj), Polish $z^{\prime}$ (art. 490), see $S^{\prime} c$.
$6^{\prime} f$. (zh), French $j$.
$6^{\prime} g$. (gjh), as $g$ in könige. (gh), as $g$ in betrogen.
6 " $h$. (Gh), "the 19th letter, ghain, of the Arabic alphabet" (art. 549), considered as ribrating, but as related to $(\mathrm{K})$, that is our (grh) is made $=(\mathrm{Gh})$.
$7^{\prime}$ a. (p), usual.
$7^{\prime} b$. (t), usual, for dentality see $5 b$.
$\tau^{\prime} d$. $(t)$, Arabic lingual.
$7^{\prime} \ell$. ( T , presumed Sanscrit cerebral with inverted tongue.
$7^{\prime} g$. (k), usual.
$7^{\prime} h$. (к), "the 21st letter of the Arabic alphabet" (art. 547).
$\left(\kappa^{1}\right)$. "In the Waco of Texas, the entire surface, from the glottis to the ( $\kappa$ ) position, forms a contact, which is opened suddenly and iudependent of the lungs, upon a rowel formation, producing a clack or smack like that which accompanies the separation of the closed palms when wet with soap and water. The preceding closure bears some resemblance to the incipient act of swallowing- We describe it from our method of producing it, and we were said to be the first person with whom it was not vernacular, who had acquired it," art. 573. The ( $\mathrm{K}^{1}$ ) gives merely the position, ( $\mathrm{K}^{1+}$ ) is the full click, which is abbreviated to ( 8 ) on p. 11. The following are examples: ('giti'gk ${ }_{+}^{1+}$ ) eye, ( $\mathrm{arsk}^{1+}$ ) foot, ( esk $_{+}^{1+}$ ) hand.
$7^{\prime} i .,(;)$, "hamza is a closure of the glottis" (art. 568).

8" a. (ph), "It differs from (f) in not being made by the lower lip and the upper teeth, but by contact of both lips, as in blowing," art. 119.
$8^{\prime} b$. (f), usual.
$8^{\prime} c$. (s), usual.
(sj), Polish s', considered as "between (German) ssj and ssch; we have heard such a one in the Waco (wee ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ko}$ ) of Texas, as in (iskwetsj'), five, a word derived from that for hand, as in (Lenaa'pe) and Hebrew" (art. 490 ).
$8^{*} d .(s)$, Arabic lingual.
$8^{\circ}$ e. (sh), presumed Sanscrit cerebral sh, with inverted tongue.
$8^{\prime} g$. (kjh), ch iu German ich. (kh), ch in German buch.
$8^{\prime} h$. (kh), "the seventh Arabic letter" (art. 548), taken to be vibrated, and hence as my (krh).

In the scheme, theoretical sounds are excluded, and many minute varieties left unnoticed. I here put in such as I have noted in Chap. XV., on the consonants, but there are many scattered elsewhere, which I have probably overlooked.

Art. 451, Mos. 12 and 13 , and arts. 452, 463. (prh, brh), "the labial trill, a rapid alteruation between (b bh) or ( p ph ). ... The sonant labial trill is used in Germany to stop horses, and ire have known a child who emphasised the word push by trilling the $p$, when desirous of being pushed to the table after haring climbed into his chair."

Art. 472. "The $t, d$, in $t s h, d z h$, are drarrn back by the following palatal, and in fact they may be considered as the lenis forms of $s, z$," that is (tsh, dzh) are what he would write, see ( $1117, d^{\prime}$ ).

Art. 483. (uh), "surd afflate," or blowing of flatus through the nose, "we have heard in Cherokee, and a forcible sonant form in Albanian," see $2^{\prime} b$.

Art. 484-6. Indistinctuess, for scarcely heard $m, n$, before $p, d$, etc. "We have heard this $n$ in Wrandot ( $=$ wo ndot), where the speaker denied its existence, and would not have written it lad the language been a written one, as iu (Ludokhk), four, and in the name of the town (ska ${ }^{\text {a }}$ udenhtutilh), beyond the pines, Skenectady, in New York, spelt schenectady, the sch being due to the Dutch. $\Lambda$ slight ( L n ), not ( Lq ), occurs before (g) in W yandot (uuLugi.ıa';), nuts.

Art. 517. "In Sanscrit श, according to Wilkins, 'is produced by applying the tip of the tongue to the fore part of the palate, and passing the voice as in pronouncing our s."" "This," as Prof. H. observed in a letter dated 3 July, 1873, "would make it the truc aspirate of $t$. " See (1120, $c^{\prime}$ ).

Art. 525, Nos. 4 and 8, and art. 540. The Swiss and Modern Greek (krh, grh) are adduced, and an opinion is expressed that they are different from the Arabic sounds, which he writes (kh, ch), see $6^{\prime} h, 8^{\prime} h$. The chief difference of the Swiss and Modern Greek sounds from the Arabic, to my ear, is that the formor are much less forcibly pronounced than the latter. The Greek $\gamma$ is very soft indeed, and might be written (Lgrh).

Art. 563. "The sign (") represents a slight phase, whether aspirate, or independent, or even vocal, at the close of abrupt syllables." The "aspirate" is true ('h) coming from the lungs ( $1127, b^{\prime}$ ), and the rocal is ('h), see ( $1154, b$ ), the 'independent vowels' are clicks ( $\ddagger \mathrm{h}$ ) or mouth puffs ( $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ ), see (1334, a). Following Prof. H., but not entirely nsing his words or signs : ( $p_{i}^{6}$ ) is breath drawn in on opening the lips, $\left\langle\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{t}}^{+\dagger}{ }^{+6}\right\rangle$ is "the sound made faintly by smokers when separating the lips under suction, ( $\mathrm{t} . \ddagger \mathrm{h}$ ) one of the clacks, having force," etc. (art. 447). "In the (Nadaa•ko),-an English name, An-a-dah-has, of Schooleraft,-a Texan language, we have heard such
a sound following $t$, with an effect as loud as spitting, and somewhat resembling it, as in (kaba't. $\exists_{0}$ ) thread, where the resonance is modificd by ano carity; (nə•st. an), paper; (.t ョa) a•ulh), tooth, with final h, it may be considered a dissyllable; (нháw.t äo), wind ;( $\kappa \xi_{\mathrm{a}^{a^{\mathrm{s}}}}$ ), thigh, a monosyllable, the vowel of medial length" (art. 447). There seems to be a little confusion between ( $\Xi$ ) and ( $\ddagger+$ ), but the whole observation is important in observing sounds. I have used the subscript ( $0, a$ ) in $\left(\xi_{0}, \xi_{a}\right)$, to shew the form of the resonance cavity, instead of subjoining $(\rho, \partial)$ as Prof. II. has done.

Art. 551. "As independent ( $\mathrm{p} \exists_{\mathrm{ph}}$, $\mathrm{t} \xi_{\mathrm{th}}, \mathrm{k} g_{\mathrm{kh}}$ ) can be formed without air from the lungs, so in the Chinook of Oregon ( $\kappa \xi_{\kappa \mathrm{h}}$ ) is similarly treated, according to the pronunciation of Dr. J. K. Townsend, which we acquired. In the following examples an allowance must be made for two personal equa-

 yellow."

Art. 570. For "the Arabic and Hebrew ain, . . . the vowel is heard with a simultaneous fancal scrape, which may be regarded as a sufficient interruption to make it a modified liquid; and the vowel and scraping effect being simultaneons, they camot be represented by a consonant character preceding a rowel one," as (¢a), hence he writes a minute < below the vowel, answering to $\left(\varepsilon^{\mathrm{a}}\right.$ ), see ( $\left.1130, c .1134, d^{\prime} .1334, c\right)$.

The other of the two methods of arranging consonants previously referred to (1345, c), is by Prince Louis Lucieu Bonaparte. It is not only the most extensive, and travels over much ground not touched by others, but it procceds upon a principle which I think it important to enforce. Instead of attempting, from the narrow resources of a few languages, to predict all sounds that could be made, and erect almost à priori a set of physiological pigeon-ioles, into which each sound could be laid-or squeezed, the Prince has endeavoured to ascertain what sounds are really used in those languages to which he has had access, and, as we have already seen (pp. 1300-7), these are not few, although limited in area, not embracing the Indian, Semitic, Chinese, Japanese, Malay, Polyuesian, African, North and South American, and from each there is doubtless very much indeed to be learned, which may require new pigeonholes to be constructed for their proper reception. The question with him was-and I trust it may become the question with phonologists generally, as thus they can chiefly secure the proper consummation of their own scicnce, and render to philology the
assistance of which it now stands so sorely in need-the question was, not what sounds may, but what sounds do, exist? Having collected a large number of these, the next business was to arrange them, not $\dot{d}$ priori, but à posteriori, by an examination of actual characteristics, and finally to suit them with a notation agreeing with the arrangement. ${ }^{1}$ Every one who attempts to classify natural objects -to which category speech-sounds are thus reduced-knows very well that the discovery of new objects is continually forciug him to change his arrangement. As in the old story, the giant grows too fast for the castle to contain him. Hence even the Prince's last cffort, to classify about 300 consonants, is far from supreme. There may be 300 more set to classify, though many of them will doubtless fit into his framerrork. Those who take up these investigations for the first time, or with a view of condensing the results into a short system, thinking that such will be "enough for all purposes"-an opinion generally entertained when very few purposes are known or contemplated,--may find in this extensive list a needless amount of repetition and circumstantiality. Granting that consonants may be labialised, or palatalised, or labio-palatalised, what need is there, they may think, to do more than adduce a ferr cases as evidence of the fact, or opinion? Granting that consonants may have moderate, or considerable, or very great, or rery little, energy, what need to write down every case of the kind as a separate consonant? But it certainly is of scientific importance to know what cases of this kind actually occur, and when we come, years hence probably, to endearour to understand and compare the varions modes of synthesis (or syllabication) used by different nations, to understand the interaction of consonants, and their modifications by eusironment and habit of speech, we shall regard such distinctions as rather too few than too many. Again, in judging of the change of words in English dialects when properly attacked-scientific phonologists face to face with native, with no literary screen between them-an accurate knowledge of all these distinctions will be really needed. Again, in attempting to suggest origins and changes of words, eren our best philologists are continually at fault, from supposing that what has happened under some circumstances will happen under others, not knowing how extremely eclectic different speech-forms are, not merely in the range of sounds used, but in the subjective assimilation of those sounds to sounds heard. Such lists as the Prince's are extremely valuable-but they are really only the preliminaries of scientific phonology.

In the following list I have endeavoured to combine the Prince's lincar and tabular arrangements. The use of consecutive numbers -continued from the vowel-list on p. 1299-will enable any person to identify almost any European consonant, and refer to it simply as B 100, B 101, etc. Each consonant is accompanied by a key-word,

[^29]where they had generally been taken either from Lepsius or Bell; but there are very few, if any, which the Prince inserted of his own accord.
pointing out the letters by which it is ordinarily spelled, translated, and referred to its own language, and this alone would make the list of great use. The systematic arrangement, however, shews how that sound appears to the Prince to be connected with other sounds, and thus, nearly in the same way as by his vowel triangle, he indicates his own view of the nature of the sound. His view may not agree with that taken by others, who derive theirs from different sources. It does not attempt, like Brücke's or Bell's schemes, to give an accurate physiological account of each consonant. But it is the view of a man, who, born in England, educated in Italy, a good Spanish scholar, speaking French by right of country, has for more than twenty years devoted himself to linguistic study, particularly to that of a language rich in strange sounds and numerous dialects, the Basque, which he has learned literally from the mouths of men, the peasants of each little hamlet, heard on the spot; and who has travelled, especially to hear sounds, over England and Scotland and other countries; who has familiarised himself more or less accurately with Celtic and most literary languages of Europe; who has entered minutely into the phonology and construction of English, French, and Italian dialects, by actual contact with natives and intercourse (often mouths of intercourse, obtained at great cost) with those who had studied them on the spot, causing extensive series of comparative specimens to be prepared for him, in the last few years taking up the remarkable series of Uralian dialects;-a man who, in all that he has done himself or through others, has worked not as a princely dilettante seeking amusement, but as a scholar, a man of letters, and a man of science, working for the end of men of science -the discovery of natural laws. However much any individual observer may, therefore, think him wrong in some details,-as in the classification of the sounds native to that observer,-or in some principle of classification, or in some identifications, or some analyses, -yet as the conscientious work of one observer, gathering sounds from sources often accessible with difficulty or not at all, and comparing them together with great care and thoughtfulness,--this system of consonants must remain for long a great mine whence to dig the materials for future phonologic edifices. I feel personally greatly indebted to the Prince for having placed his MS. at my disposal for the purposes of this work, and allowing me to edit it with the addition of my own palaectypic symbols, which I have had greatly to augment in consequence. A few years ago, wishing to complete the table with which I began this work, and to identify my symbols with the Prince's as far as possible, I requested him to go over that list, mark his own symbols in the margin, and add notes of any sounds which I had omitted. This was the origin of the following list, which he began preparing as an arrangement of the other for a foreign scholar, and which finally grew to its present vast dimensions. Thus associated with the instrument which has rendered this work possible for the printer, it is in every way fitting that this phonologic system should take an honoured position in its pages. The two lists, of the vowels and of the consonants, together
form the most complete series of signs which has been constructed, and will, I hope, stimulate other phonologists to complete it, by the addition of extra European sounds, rerified, like these, by actual examples, of which those collected by Prof. Haldeman from North American Indian languages may serve as a specimen.

## Prince louis Lucies Boxaparte's Classification of Consonasts.

See p. 1349. The numbers, whiel stand in place of the Prince's symbols, run ou from the numbers of the vowels given on p. 1299, and are to be cited as B 76 , etc. The original table was arranged in 19 columns, each consisting of 40 lines. The columns are here numbered and distinguished by headings, of which, to prevent mistakes, the original Freuch is annexed. The class names thus introduced are often not the same as previously used in this book; this can hardly lead to confusion, however, except perhaps in the word palatal, which is synonymous with my coronal ( $1096, c$ ). Several stages are also often distinguished where I had only one, thus dentals becone dentals, alveolar-dentals, double alveolars, and alveolars, and so on. The lines are in the original divided into 10 groups of 4 each. These groups are here distinguished by italic letters prefixed to the first number in each, as follows:
He hard explosive, explosives fortes. Nc nasal continuous, contimues nasales.
$S e$ soft explosive, explosives douces. $\quad \mathrm{Hl}$ hard liquid, liquides fortes.
Ne nasal explosive, explosives nasales.
Hc hard continuous, continucs fortes.
Sc soft continuous, continues douces.

Sl soft liquid, liquides douces.
Ht hard trill, tremblantes fortes.
St soft trill, tremblantes douces.
where hard means 'voiceless,' and soft means ' voiced.'
As there are often several symbols in one line in the original, the first line of each group must be considered to begiu with the above marks; the second with those involving the letter ( j ), the third with those involving (w), and the fourth with those involving $\left(w_{j}\right)$. These are the palaeotype symbols for palatalised, labialised, and labio-palatalised, or, mouillées, veloutées, and mixtes, formerly called fuitées, characters which distinguish the consonants in these lincs (1115, $a^{\prime}$ ). Several lines, and even groups of lines, are not unfrequently blank, and these are not entered in the list, as the position of those written is sutticiently distinguished by the prefixed and involved letters. They furnish positions for possible sounds not yet recognised in actual speech.
The palaeotype symbols have been identiñed by the Prince, as far as my origiual list of symbols extended (pp. 3-12), but I have been obliged to add many new oncs, distinguished by *. In doing so I have been guided by the systematic forms of the Prince's symbols. The combinations are sometimes very clumsy, but they are adapted to the 'old types,' and hence can be printed by any printer, whereas the Priuce's are many of them uot cut or are else not available by "the trade" (1298, a). Where the palaeotypic forms differ from those given on pp. 3-12 in this book, they must be considered as emendations.

The sign for "weakening the consonant" has been represented by a prefixed ( $L$ ), a cut $[$, see ( $419, d$ ).
The sign for "rendering the consonant euergetic," by doubling it, see (799, $d^{\prime}$ ).
The sign for "reudering the consonant semi-energetic," by prefixing the strong mark (.), see ( $10, d$ ), which is now never used for indicating dental consonants, ( $1095, c^{\prime}$ ).
The sign for "rendering the consonant alveolar," or dental, or 'advanced,' is ()$\left._{1}\right)$, and for rendering it 'retracted' is ( $)$ ), and these signs are freely used.

The sign for "rendering the consonant semi-palatal," or semi-mouillée, an operation I do not perfectly understand, is represented by ( J ) an undotted ( j ), which is the usual sign for palatalising.

After the palacotype is given an example of the word in its usual spelling
in Roman letters, followed by the combination of letters which indicate the sound in it, its meaning in italics, where the word is not English, and the name of the langnage, abbreviated as follows, and by any necessary remark, which, when not due to the Prince, is inclosed in [].

| ab abasian | e english |
| :--- | :--- |
| al albanian | f french |
| ar arabic | fin fumish |
| da danish | ge german |
| dr dravidian | ga gaelic |

## 1. Labials. <br> Labiales.

He 76 p реа, p , e
$77 \mathrm{pm}{ }^{*}$ porun, $\dot{\mathrm{p}}$, glass, k
78 pp* сорра, pp, сир, i
$79 \mathrm{pl}^{\mathrm{h}}$ pterd, pf, horse, bavarian
[? (рн рнh pl ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ )]
80 Lplh* ${ }^{\text {pe }}$, $\mathfrak{p}$, side, thush
81 wh which, wh, e
82 pj gap, p , lounger, pl
83 pw pois, po, pea, f
84 pwj* puits, pu, well n., f
Se 80 b bee, b, e
86 bj* bar, b, pond, k
87 bb* gobba, bb, hump, i
88 ' p * saxon
89 w wine, w, e
90 bj jedwab, b, silk, pl
$91 \mathrm{~b} w$ bois, bo, wood, f
92 bwj* buis, bu, box (wood), f
Ne $93 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{me}, \mathrm{m}$, e
94 mJ * maq, m, thir $s t$, k
95 mm * fiamma, mm, flame, i
96 mh tempt, m, e [after Bell (tEmht), $\operatorname{see}(1141, a)]$
$97 \mathrm{~b}_{\mathrm{t}}$ * sebm, bm, seven, Westmorland eng.
$98 \pi$ * samrad, in, summer, ir
$99 \mathrm{mj}^{*}$ karm, m, fecding, pl
$100 \mathrm{~m} w$ moi, mo, me, f
$101 \mathrm{~m} w \mathrm{j}^{*}$ muid, mu, hogshead, f .
Hc 102 ph [from my list]
Sc 103 bh haba, b, bcan, sp
$104 \mathrm{bh} w^{*}$ an occasional, if not the standard Dutch $w$, between $\mathrm{sp} . b$ and e. $w$
Ht 105 prh [from my list]
St 106 brh [from my list]
107 mu very, r , e [defective lip r]
108 wo our, $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{e}$ [occ.]

## 2. Labio-dentals. <br> Labio-dentales.

He $109 \mathrm{P} \quad$ [theoretical, from my list]
Se 110 в [from mylist, see $(1292, d)]$
Hc 111 f foe, f, e
112 ff* schiaffo, ff, slap in the face, i
$113 f$ [theoretical, from my list]
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { hun hungarian } & \mathrm{pr} & \text { portuguese } \\ \text { i } & \text { italian } & \text { rus } \\ \text { russian }\end{array}\right)$

114 fh [theoretical, from my list, where I took it from Bell, see p. 1343, 4 d.]
115 fj* fyaïz, fy, flee (imperat. plur.) Guernsey norman
$116 \mathrm{f} w$ foie, fo, liver, f
117 f wj* fuite, fu, flight, f
Sc 118 v vine, v , e
$119 \mathrm{vj}^{*}$ सेarta, w, plate, k
$120 \mathrm{rv}^{*}$ arventura, rv, adventure, i
121 Lv* $^{*}$ kjöbenlarn, b, Copenhugen, da
$122 v$ [theoretieal]
123 'v* an occ. if not the standard Dutch $v$
$124 \mathrm{vH}^{*}$ [theoretical]
125 vj* paw, w, peacock, pl
$126 \mathrm{v} w$ voix, vo, voice, f
$N c 127 \mathrm{v}_{*}^{*}$ féim, $\dot{\mathrm{m}}$, mild $_{\uparrow}$ ir

## 3. Labio-linguals. <br> Labio-linguales.

$H_{e} 128 \mathrm{p}^{*}$ at'a, t , hay, ab
129 p.p* yțt ${ }^{\prime}$ t., sit down, ab
Se 130 b* ad'y, d', field, ab
Sl 131 In*lamh, l, hand, ga

## 4. Dentals.

Dentales.
He 132 „ $\mathrm{t}^{\text {* }}$ talam, t , earth, ir
133 "ti* tirm, $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{dry}$, ir
Se 134 "dं* donn, d, brown, ir
135 "dj* dia, d, god, ir
$H e 136$ th thin, th, e
137 c existence doubtful, see $(4, b)$
Sc 138 dh thee, th, e
139 c [existence doubtful, see $(4, b)]$
Hl I40 wh [theoretical, from my list]
Sl 141 I ooyl, l, apple, manx

## 5. Alveolo-Dentals. Alvéolo-dentules.

Hc 142 c metsia, ts, wood (forest), West Nyland fin
143 th* vizio, $z$, viee, i
Sc $144^{i}$ zot, $ц$, lord, al
145 dh lid, d , lawsuit, sp

## 6. Double Alveolars. Alvéolaires Doubles.

He I46 .s* lo zio, z, the uncle, i 147 s, s, pazzo, zz, mad, i 148 . s* aca, c, granary, ab
149 ! ! ${ }^{*}$ ac̣’abyrg, c̣ ${ }^{\prime}$, truth, Bzyb ab
150 .!* ác'a, $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$, wild cherry, ab
151 .! $\mathrm{j}^{*}$ ẹ'abu, ě', much, k
152 sji* siac', $c^{\prime}$, to sow, pl
153 s.ic su** aç̣a, ć, apple, ab
$154 . \mathrm{sw}^{*} \mathrm{ac}^{\mathrm{c}}, \mathrm{c}^{\prime}, ~ o x, \mathrm{ab}$
Sc 155 . $\mathrm{z}^{*}$ lo zelo, z , the zeal, i
156 , z, z* rozzo, zz, coarse, i
157 . $\mathrm{zj}^{*}$ jedz', $\mathrm{dz} z^{\prime}$, go (imperat.), pl
$158, z w^{*} a z^{\prime} y, z^{\prime}$, some one, $a b$

## 7. Alveolars. Alvéolaires.

He 159 t tas, t , heap, f
160 . $\mathrm{J}^{*}$ tai, t, colt, k
161 t,t* matto, tt, mad, i
162 tıh* til, t, to, da

164 (tth ${ }^{\text {h* }}$ tuix, t , salt, thush
165 , tj* ПуІІь, Шь, toау, rus
166 tw toi, to, thee, f
167 ,twj* étui, tu, casc, f
Se 168 , d* doux, d, sweet, f
169 , dJ* doxlu, d̀, freshness, k
170 d d* Iddio, dd, God, i
171 'd [from my list]
172 , dj* ป0шадь, дь, horse, rus
173 d $w$ doigt, do, $f i n g c \cdot, \mathrm{f}$
174 , duj \% conduire, du, to conduct, f
Ne 175 , n* nain, n , dwarf, f
176 nJ* hak, n, blue, k
177 , u, n* canna, nn, reeds i
178 d , bean, n , woman, ir
179 , пј* . Ннь, Нь, tench, rus
180 nit* noix, no, walnut, f
181 nwj* nuit, nu, night, f
IIc 182 s so, $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{e}$
183 ss* cassa, ss, box, i
181 sjsj* ṣ̂ât, ṣ่, hour k
185 sif* $ص$ ar
186 sj kos', s', mow (imperat.) pl
187 sw soie, so, silk, f
188 swj* suie, su, soot, f
Sc 180 z zeal, z, e
$190 \mathrm{zz*}$ azzal, zz , with the, hum
191 .z* zaqa, z, hovo much, ab
192 zj lez', $z^{\prime}$, go up, pl
193 zw rasoir, so, razor, f
194 zwj* dixhuit, xhu, eightecn, f

Nc 195 zh * [theoretical]
IIl 196 l $w$ h [theoretical]
Sl 197. lait, l, milk, f
198 lı* lap, l̉, shine, k
199 . I I* stella, ll, star, i
200 lj* коро.Іь, ль, king, rus
201 Iw loi, lo, law, f
202 lwj* lui, lu, him, f
St 203 rey, r, king, sp

## 8. Whishes. <br> Chuintantcs.

Hc 201 sh she, sh, e
205 shJ* sarabuču, $\underset{\substack{3 \\ \text { tryman, } \\ k}}{\text { fellow cour- }}$
206 shsh* pesce, sc, fish, i
207 shjshj* sֻoldi, şे, grcen, k
208 .sh* aša, š, rope, ab
209 shj ВОШь, Шь, louse, rus
210 sh $\nsim$ choix, cho, choice, f
$211 \operatorname{sh} w \operatorname{sh} w^{*}$ aṣ̀, ş̀, plane tree, ab
212 .shw* aš, s̀̀ door, ab
213 shwj* chuinter, chu, whish, f
Sc 214 zh pleasure, s, c
215 zhzh* a' zseb, zs, the pocket, huul
216 .zh* aža, ž, harc, ab
217 zhj jiu, j, come (participle), souletin basque
218 zhw joie, jo, joy, f
219 zh $w$ zh $w^{*}$ az̀ , $\stackrel{\grave{v}}{2}$, cow, ab
220 .zh $w^{*}$ z̀ेaba, $\grave{\Sigma}$, ten, ab
$221 \mathrm{zh} w \mathrm{j}^{*}$ juin, ju, june, f
IIt 222 rsh przez, rz, through, pl
St 223 rzh [theoretical], see B 284 (rhh)

## 9. Palatal Whishes. <br> Palato-chuintantes.

Hc 224 .sh* pece, c, pitch, i
225 sh sh* caccia, ce, hunting, i
226 .sh* ača, 厄̌, quail, ab
227 ! h! !h* ac̣!y, č̣, mouth, ab
228 . Ch* ač'y, č', horse, ab
229 . Clu** č'ân, $\stackrel{?}{c}^{\prime}$, early, k
230 , shj* НОЧЬ, Чь, night, rus
$230^{\prime \prime}$. sh $w^{*}$ cuoui, cuou, to cook, Louisiana fr. creole
$230^{\prime \prime \prime}$. sh wj* cnuite, chu, to cook, Trinidad fr. creole
Sc 231 , zh* regio, gi, royal, i

232 , zh,zh* maggio, ggi, may (mouth), i
233 ,zhj* espundja, dj, sponge, souletin basque
233" , zhwj* néJuî, su, necdle, Louisiana fr. creole
10. Double Palatals.

Palatales Doubles.
Hc 234 7s* otso, ts, wolf, basque

## 11. Palatals. <br> Palatales.

He 235 t tea, t , e
236 tt* huset, t, the house, colloquial da
237 sh hue, $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{e}$
238 tj tyúk, ty, hen, hun
239 tjtj* a' tyúk, ty, the hen, huu
Se 240 d do, d, e
241 dd* beddu, dd, beautiful, sardinian
242 d** lado, d, side, sp
243 Ld did Gud, d, God, jutlandish
244 Ј yet, y, e
245 Js* ejjel, jj, night, hun
246 dj gyöngy, both gy, pearl, hun
247 djdj* a' gyöngy, first gy, the pearl, hun
Ne 248 n no, n , e
249 nh tent, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{e}$ [after Bell (tenht), see ( $1141, a)]$
250 J.* azkoỹa, y, the badger, roncalese basque
251 nj digne, gu, worthy, f
252 njnj* a' nyul, ny, the hare, hun
253 njh [theoretical]
Hc 254 s* su, s, fire, sp basque
Sc 255 , z* zagal, z,young shepherd, pr
$H l 256 \mathrm{lh}$ felt, 1, e [Bell's (fellit), see (1141, d)]
257 ljh glas, l, knell (fuucreal), saintongeais
Sl 2581 low, l, e
259 lj figlio, gli, son, i
260 ljlj* melly, ll, which, hun
Ht 261 eh [theoretical]
$262 h^{*}$ 乙 $^{\text {ar }}$
$263 \mathrm{hb}^{*}$ ḥolu, h, orphan, k
264 h] hl * h'i, h', pigcon, k
$265 r_{H^{*}} \mathrm{~h}^{\circ} \mathrm{aba}, \mathrm{h}^{\prime}$, fish, k
St 266 r ray, r, e
267 rr* terra, rr, carth, i
268 \& $\varepsilon^{\text {ar }}$
269 rj wuhor', r', eel, lusatian
270 rw roi, ro, king, f
271 rwj bruit, ru, noise, f

## 12. Ultra-palatals. <br> Ultra-palatales.

He 272 т sn
Se 273 D sn
Ne 274 n sll
275 xh dr
$H c 276$ sh sn
277 тhh dr
Sc 278 zh
279 Dhh dr
Hl 280 Lh dr
Sl 281 L sn
Ht 282 rh
St $283 \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{sn}$
284 rhh dr
[The whole of thisset of letters was taken from my list, where again they were takeu from Lepsius's Alphabet, and they must be considered therefore as very doubtful. For sn. see (1096, $b^{\prime}$. 1137. 1138) ; of dr. I know nothing. The ( $z \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{Rh}$ ) were entirely theoretical to match (sh, R).]

## 13. Gutturo-Labials. <br> Gutturo-Labiales.

He 285 p [from my list, and that from Lepsius] peruvian
286 wjh ih'y, h', speak, ab
Se $287 b$. [theoretical, from my list]
288 wj huile, hu, oil, f
Hc 289 fh [theoretical, from my list, and that from Bell]
Sc 290 vh [theoretical]

## 14. Gutturo-Dentals. Gutturo-dentales.

[Note.-The marks over the $t$ in the examples to B 291, 292, 293, aud over the $d$ in B 295, 296, 297, should properly go through the stem of the letters.]
$H c 291$ th kat, t , day, s. os. [See Note.]
292 thth* wattax, tut, without, s. os. [See Note.]
293 thj* sita, $\stackrel{\breve{\mathrm{t}}}{\underline{\mathrm{t}}}$, gunpowder, low s. os. [See Note.]

294 thjthj* [theoretical]
Sc $295 d \mathrm{~h}$ âdain, d̆, morning, s. os. [See Note.]
$296 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{~h} d \mathrm{~h}^{*}$ wad̆dax, đ̆d , without, 5. os. [See Note.]
$297 \mathrm{dhj}{ }^{*}$ sid̈a, $\frac{\ddot{\mathrm{d}}}{}$, gunpowder, high s. os. [Sce Note.]
$298 \mathrm{dhj} d \mathrm{hj}^{*}$ [theoretical]

## 15. Guttural Whishes. <br> Gutturo-chuintantes.

Hc 299 "sh* la chjai, chj, the kicy, tempiese sardinian
300 .sh.sh* vecchju, cchj, old, tempiese sardinian

301 "shwj* kyuir, kyu, lcather, picard
Sc 302 ."zhwj* la ghjesgia, ghj, the church, tempiese sardinian
303 "zhujj.zhu'j* ogghji, gghj, to day, tempiese sardinian

## 16. Gutturo-Palatals. <br> Gutturo-palutales.

He $304 t \quad b$ ar
$305 t \mathrm{j}^{*}$ ttorttoil, tt , turtle dove, labourdin basque
Se 306 d $\dot{\sim}$ ar
$307 \mathrm{dj}^{*}$ yaun, $y$, lord, labourdin basque
Ne 308 n [theoretical]
Hc 309 s* [theoretical]
310 s su, s, fire, labourdin basque
Sc $311, z^{*}$ [theoretical]
$312 z$ Jesus, both s, Jesus, souletin basque

## 17. Double Gutturals. Gutturales Doubles.

Hc 313 , kh mac, c, son, ga

## 18. Gutturals. <br> Gutturalcs.

He $314 \mathrm{k} \quad \mathrm{key}, \mathrm{k}$, e
310 kJ k̉orn, $\mathbf{k}$, nest, k
316 kk bocca, ec, mouth, i
317 k h komm, k, come, upper g . [? kiI, kI, kTh, kih]
318 kJIh kala, $\mathfrak{k}$, white, k
319 LkTh kok, ${ }^{\text {k }}$, foot, thush
320 Hh hand, h, hand, g
321 нhнh ahhoz, hh, thereto, hun
322 H hand, h, e [pure jerk $\left.\left(1130, b^{\prime}\right)\right]$
323 ; sar [hamza]
$32 \pm \mathrm{kj}$ la chiare, chi, the key, i
325 kjkj occhio, cchi, eye, i
326 whj la chiave, chi, the key, florentine i
327 kw quoi, quo, what, f
328 uwh [from my list, but ('hw) is the new form ( $p$. $1341,9 f)$ ]
329 ни [from my list, ('hwh) is the new form (p. 1341, $9 f)]$
330 kuj* biscuit, cu, biscuit, f
Se 331 g go, g, e
$332 \mathrm{gg}^{*}$ veggo, gg, $I$ see, i
333 'g argem, $g$, $I$ sing, os

334 n' $w^{*}$ huevo, hu, egg, sp
335 gj la ghianda, ghi, the acorn, i
336 gjgj* $^{*}$ ragghiare, gghi, to bray, i
337 gw goître, go, goiter, f
338 gwj * aiguille, gu, needle, f
Ne 339 q singer, ng, e
340 qh sink, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{e},[$ Bell's (siqhk), see $(1141, a)]$
$341 \mathrm{H}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ * hadk, h, multitude, scutari al
342 qj sn [from my list, for which I now use (qJ), see $\left.\left.1137, c^{\prime}\right)\right]$
$H c 343 \mathrm{kh}$ dach, ch, roof, g.
344 x [existence doubtfu], see $(9, d)$, where it was introduced because the real sound of $\mathrm{sp} j$ was unknown]
$345 \mathrm{khkh} *$ palchi, leh, because, sassarese sardinian
346 khjkhj* $\mathrm{x}^{\prime \prime}$ ot, $\mathrm{x}^{\prime \prime}$, shade, k
347 khn [from my list]
348 kjh mileh, ch, milk, g
349 kwh loch, ch, lake, south scotch
Sc 350 gh tage, 9 , days, g
$351 x \quad$ [See B 344]
352 ghgh* olganu, lg, organ, sassarese sardinian
353 .gh [see B 347]
$35 \pm$ gjh selig, g, blis,ful, g
355 gwh [from my list, theoretical]
Nc $356 \mathrm{gh} \mathrm{h}^{*} \dot{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{onkodize}, \dot{\mathrm{~s}}$, to snore, avarian
Hl 357 lh [theoretical, from iny list]
358 lhh Ilaw, ll, hand, welsh
359 lhhj* [theoretical]
360 woh [theoretical, from my list, and that from Bell]
Sl 361 l Iamac', t, to break, pl
$362 \mathrm{lhh}^{*}$ [theoretical voiced Welsh ll. The Manx sound spoken of as ( $l \mathrm{hh}$ ) in (756, d') is properly B 141, a deutal $\mathbf{x}$.]
$363 \mathrm{hhj}{ }^{*}$ [theoretical]
364 lw [theoretical, from my list, and that from Bell.]
Ht $365 \mathrm{krh} \dot{\text { C }}$ ar
366 .h [theoretical, from my list]
St 367 grh $\underset{\text { gr }}{ }$
368 .r rock, r, Newcastle
369 [ $r^{*}$ var, r , was, jutlandish
370 ; * Paris, r, Paris, parisian
$371 \mathrm{r}^{*}$ irregulicr, rr , irregular. parisian

## 19. Ultra-gutturals.

Ultra-gutturales.
He 372 k ت̈ ar

- $373 \mathrm{KJ}{ }^{*}$ ' ${ }^{\text {appa, }}$, hat, k

Sc 374 G [theoretical, from my list]
375 Gw [theoretical, from my list]
Ne 376 a [theoretical, from my list]
He 377 kh nacht, ch, night, dutch

378 khy* x̀ort, ${ }^{\mathbf{x}}$, pear, k
379 .hh* x̣ata, $\mathrm{x}^{\prime}$, house, k
$380 \mathrm{k} w \mathrm{~h}$ [theoretical, from my list]
Se 381 gh God, G, God, dutch
382 Gwh [theoretical, from my list]
Ht 383 rh [theoretical, from my list]
St 384 т ret, r, right, da
385 [ ${ }^{*}$ * var, r , was da

No. 8. German Dialectal Changes.

## i. Sehmeller on Bavarian Dialcetal Changes.

In the present section, as in the former part of this work, reference has been very frequently made to the labours of Schmeller on the Bavarian dialects. ${ }^{1}$ It seemed thercfore that a complete systematic account of the variations of sounds he has observed would be the best possible introduction to the following fragmentary account of English dialectal usages.

Schmeller adopts a phonetic alphabet, of which the followiug seems to be the palaeotypic signification:

## Vowels.

$\dot{a}^{\prime}(\mathrm{a}), \hat{a}$ or $a(a), \hat{a}(0), \dot{e}(\mathrm{E}), \hat{e}(e)$ and perhaps $(\mathrm{e}), e^{(i)}, i(\mathrm{i})$, $\delta$ or $o(o), \ddot{o}(\propto), u(u), \ddot{u}(\mathrm{y}), ə(\partial)$.

Sometimes his symbols indicate etymological relations, thus a shews the (') somnd before $l$ which replaces $\hat{e}(e)$ and $p ?$ an ( $i, \mathrm{i}$ ), which seems to have become some obscure palatal and may be vaguely represented by (' j ), as in (ee'j). [ ${ }^{\circ}$ ] indicates an omitted vowel, [~] sometimes merely the nasalisation (6), sometimes also the omission of $m, n$.

## Consonants.

$g(\mathrm{~g}), g g(\mathrm{k}), g h$ or $h h(\mathrm{gh}), k \hbar(\mathrm{kH}),-l(\mathrm{ll})$, an (l) disunited from the preceding rowel; -bm, -fm, -pm, -wm, (-b'm, -f'm, -p'm, -bl'm) where ('m) has arisen from en, -chng, -gng, -ling (-kh'q, -g'q, -k'q), where ('q) has also arisen from en, but after a guttural; hr (rh), $s(z), f f(\mathrm{~s}), \operatorname{sch}(z h), f c h(\mathrm{sh}), z(. \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}), t z(. t \mathrm{~s}) ;[']$ omitted 7 , [ $\sim$ ] an unpronounced $m$ or $n$, after a nasalised vowel, or after a vowel which cannot be nasalised in the dialect, that is (i, u, $)$ ), so that ai~ means (a,i); ['] an unpronounced $r$, (') any other omitted $^{\prime}$ ) letter, or an omitted $m$ and $n$ after an unnasalised vowel which might have been nasalised.
${ }^{1}$ Die Mundarten Bayerns grammatisch dargestellt ron Joh. Andreas Sehmeller. Beygegeben ist eine Sammlung von Mundart-Proben, d. i. kleinen Erzählungen, Gesprächen, Sing-Stüeken, figürlichen Redensarten u. dergl. in den verschiedenen Dialekten des Königreichs, nebst einem Kärtchen zur geographischen Uebersicht dicser Dialekte. München, 1821. 8vo. pp. 568.

Bayerisches Wörterbuch. Sammlung von Wörtern und Ausdrücken, die in den lebenden Mundarten sowohl, als in
der ältern und ältesten ProvincialLitteratur des Königreichs Bayern, besonders seiner ältern Lande, vorkommen, und in der heutigen allgemeindeutschen Schriftsprache entweder gar nicht, oder nicht in denselben Bedeutungen üblich sind, mit urkundlichen Bclegen, nach den Stammsylben ety-mologisch-alphabetisch 'georduct von J. Andreas S'chmeller, Stuttgart and Tubingen, 8vo. vol. 1, 1827, pp. 6.10 ; vol. $2,1828, \mathrm{pp} .722$; vol. $3,1836, \mathrm{pp}$. 691 ; vol. 4, 1837, pp. 310, xxx.

Unfortunately, in his verbal examples Schmeller generally confines his phonetic symbols to the point under consideration, and prints the rest of the word in ordinary gothic characters. Eren in his literary examples, "in order not to render the text unnecessarily unintelligible, some letters, as aü ei eu ö ü st, etc., are not always translated into the peculiar forms belonging to the dialect," referring generally to the particular tables. This facilitates the reading of the sense to the detriment of the reading of the sound. The same feeling has unfortunately widely prevailed in writing English dialects, but it is altogether unscientifie, and often produces the utmost bewilderment. It has materially added to the laboriousness and uncertainty of my own researches. The correct principle is to regard sound only, and when written words threaten to be unintelligible, on account of their differing so much from their ordinary appearance, the usual spelling should be given in addition, and sometimes a complete translation is requisite.

In the following notes the arrangement of Schmeller, arts. 102691, has been followed. The whole is materially abridged. My own insertions are placed in brackets [ ], verbal translations between inverted commas. The numbers in parenthesis refer to Schmeller's articles. Sounds are given in palaeotype. Ordinary German spelling is given in italics, or capitals, large or small, and in the latter case $\ddot{\ddot{o}} \ddot{\ddot{u}} \ddot{\ddot{ }}$ have been resolved, as usual, into at, oe, ue. Schmeller uses an etymologieal spelling, which is not generally followed, but will be explained as it arises. When some letters are put in a parenthesis in the midst of a German word, these only are in palaeotype, as $a(\mathrm{f})$ er, for aber. This is to imitate Schmeller's notation, and to aroid the errors which I should almost certainly commit in attempting to give the whole word in the dialectal form, when there was no authority for the other sounds in his book. The particular localities of each pronunciation are omitted. But the following abbreviatious will be used:
$g e n$. generally, $f r$. frequently, $s m$. sometimes, $r r$. rarely. $1,2,3$, ete., pl., in one, twro, three, ete., places. N. E. W. S., North, East, West, South of Bararia. tn. town, cn. country, ed. educated.

## Vowels.

A (102-123) is:-(aa, a) gen. in non-German words, easse ( $k a \cdot s o$ ), $r$. in a few German words, before $m, n, r$, and others, gans, spass, arg (gans, shpas, arg) :-(aa, a) gen. in common non-German words, as Max (maks), and W. in all German words, but E. only before two or doubled or strong consonants, acht (akht); which m. becomes ( 0 ), graf (groof) :-(0) fr. before $l$ and single or weak consonants, alt, sagen (olt, zoo.ghon), sm. otherwise: -(áu) sm. when long, blasen (blán'zon), or as (ámo) before r, haar (nháuar):(óu) $1 p l$. even before 2 consonants, apfel (ou'pfol):-(aj) before lost $n 1$ pl.,
before $r$ fi., before lost ch 1 pl ., and when long 2 pl., sanft (zaft), arm (áərm), nacht (náət), schaf (slıáaf):(e) in a few scattered words, alles arbeit hart nah acht ( $e$ los $e$ rbet Hhert nee ekht):-(i) rr., in sontag (zu•ntigh): (úo) $2 p l$., especially before $r$, arm (uorm), halb (uhúalb):-(0) sm. in unaceented syllables sontag Laibach, davon (zu nta Laa bo dəfo،'). "If the pronunciation of high German by educated low Germans, or by edueated upper Saxons, is to be taken as the rule, $a$, to be free of all provincialisms, should be (a)."

AE (124-139) short, and long, "in
good high German pronunciation sm. è (e, ee), and sometimes ê (e, ce)," is :(a, aa) $3 p l$. iu various primitives hächsen ( $\mathrm{mha} \cdot \mathrm{k} h \mathrm{~s} ə \mathrm{n}$ ), derivatives wächse) (bha•kson), subj. pret. ich nähme (naam), diminutives mädlein (ma'd'l), plurals plätze (plaa.ts), etc.: - (e, $\mathbf{E}$ ) fr. in most of the above cases :- (E' ${ }^{\prime}$ ) 2 pl., später (shpe'ə'tər):-(E'i) $2 p l .$, gnädig, ich thäte, mäcn, süen (gne'i•di, i te'it, me'i•o, se'i•a) [observe, for Eng-lish]:-(i) $f$ i. in plurals, Fälber ( $\mathrm{k} i \cdot \mathrm{lb}$ br ), comparatives and superlatives, ärgor; der kültcste ( $i \cdot \mathrm{rg} \partial \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{k} i \cdot \mathrm{ltest}$ ), and conjugational forms, er fällt (filt): -(iə) fr. before $r$, ärger, du füh $r \cdot s t$ (iargar, du fiorst) :-(i) $2 p l$. in a few words, wächsen (bhi•ksan):-(œ) rr., kälter (kæ•ltar).

AI (140-156), usually written $\epsilon$ i, derived from original ei, gothic $a i$, "in good high Germau pronunciation (ái)," is:-(aa) 3 pl. tn. cn., breit flcisch klein (braad flaash klaa ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ), and by umlaut becomes ( E ) in a few cases, breiter Kleiner (breetar kleenər): - (ái) gon. tn., hence ecclesiastical geist, heilig, and terminations heit, keit, have (ái) gen.:-( $a$, o) $2 p l . t n$. en, in uninflected forms, especially before $l, m, n$, bein (baa، boo „), stein (shtaa، shtoo ):-(ai, ói) in inflected forms, although the inflection is gen. lost, der kleine (klá ${ }_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{i}$ ), mit dem steine (mi•t'n shtó i), breitcr (brói•tar), weinen (bhó in), and $1 \mathrm{pl} . \mathrm{cn}$. in uninflected forms, Acisch (flóish):-( $\dot{\alpha}^{\circ}$ ) fir., klein, beincr (kláa, báə no), which by unlaut becomes ( $\varepsilon^{\prime} \partial$ ), breiter (bre'ə-dor): -(Ee) fr., flesch (fleesh):-(ee) fr., $k l e i n ~(k l c c), l_{e i b}(l e e b):-(e ́ i) 2 p l$. in inflected forms, reife (réif) :-(i) $2 \mathrm{pl}$. , in certain forms of verbs, replacing ag, as $d u$ saist $=\operatorname{sagcst}$ (du zist) :-(úi) $2 p l$. before $m$ and $n$, eins (úis), heim (uhái): -(ә) gen. in unemphatic article ein; and $f r$. in other unaccented syllables, arbeit ( $a \cdot r b a t$ ), gewohnhcit (gbhoo nət); or is quite lost, vortheil (voort'l).

AU (157-163), original $U$, "in good high German pronunciation (áu)," is:-(a) sm., aus dem hause (aa's'n Hhas), especially before $l, m$, as faul (fa'l):-(âu) ed.gen. except W.:-(a) 1 pl. (aa•s'n nhas) :-(au) or (óu) W., haus (uhóus):- (uu) according to origin in SW. and N., auf brauch fa世st (uf bruuka fuusht), but in N. often (ai), braut faust (brúit fúist).

AEU, the 2 minlaut of AU (164-170), "in grood high Gcrman pronunciation (áy)," is :-(ái) fr., häzsser, müuse
(uhái'zər, máis):-(áy) sm. "more careful pronunciation tn. cn. ed.," (нháy zor', máys):-(ai) 1 pl.:-(EE) $2 p l .:-\left(\mathrm{E}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}\right) 2$ pl., träublein (tre'i $\left.\cdot \mathrm{b}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}\right)$ : -(éi) W., mäuse (méis):-(yy) where au from $u$ is still (uu), which in SW. becomes (ii), fäuste (fyst), höuser (Hhii'zər).

AU, or $\hat{a} u$, older ou, gothic $a u$, which in Scandinavian, low German, on upper Rhein, and in most high German dialeets, is almost always distinguished in pronunciation from the former AU (171178) "in good high German pronunciation (áu), the same as the former au," is : -(aа) E., auch baum staub traum (aa baam staab traam):-(au) W. and $c d$. gcn.:-(aa) rr., glauben (glac-bo), baum (baam):-(d́u):-(oo) 5 pl. (boom): (óu) $2 p l$. (bóum) :- (EE) $1 p l$. in several words when (aa) is not common, glauben (gleeb) ; 1 pl. gen. staub (shteeb) :-(E'y) $1 p l$. in some forms where (óu) is not heard, glaubon (gle'yb).
$\mathrm{AEU}=\hat{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{cu}$, the ronlaut of the last $\mathrm{AU}=\hat{a} u(179-182)$, is not distinguished from $\hat{c} u$ where the latter becomes (aa, ex, e'y); where $\hat{u} u=(a ́ u), \hat{e} e u$ becomes (aii); where $\hat{u} u=(00), \hat{e} e u$ becomes (ee, œœ), where $\hat{a} u=(o ́ u)$ ), âeu becomes ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}$, ee).

E (183-208), "in those words where good high Germau pronunciation has ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{EE}$ )," is:-(a, aa), as sehen (zaa), geschehen (gshaa), geben (gaab gaa); and 2 pl. rr., feld (fald).

E, "that long $e$ of certain words, which, from the most ancient times in all high German dialects, although not in the same way in all, is distinguished from the usual short $e$," "in good high German pronunciation (ee)," "the éaigu of the French" (art. 71) [with which (e) seems to be confused], is :-(ái) 2 pl. en., klee, schnee (klái, shnái), ich gehe (i gái), and 1 pl . for ( E ) before $c h$, hexe, schlecht (uhháiks, shláikht):-(E, ee) fr., betcn, leckcn (bee'ton, le'kon) : -(E, ) gen. before [lost] $m$ and $n$ "obscured by nasalisation," mensch (mesh): -(E) gen. before $f$, herr (nher) :-(E'i) 2 pl., ehe (E'i), rch (re'i):-(E'ə) sm. short $e$ before $r$, crde (E'Ord), and 1 pl . before $l$, and other consonants, geld pfeffer (ge'old pféo for) :-(E'v) fr. long $e$, klce schnce (kléa shnéo):-(e, ce) E. gen., even "in those words which Adelung pronounces with (ee); educated pcople of our parts pronounce almost all $e$ like (ee)," and sm. before $l$,
"when it is not pronounced in conjunction with it (nit diesem verbunden)," as gelb (geelb) :- (a) before l, gen. E. even ed., feld, geld (fold, geld), and even (1) aione in $1 \mathrm{pl} .:-(e \epsilon)$ before $r$ in 1 pl. cn., as ernst (eernst) :-(ei) rr., as beten (bei•ten):-(i) E. tn. en., "in most words which Adelung classes as (E)," as geben (gii-ban), blech (blikh), "some of these words are peculiar to small districts": $-(\mathbf{j})$, " before $l$, the (i) is mutilated in a peculiar way, which eannot be described, and must be heard," E. in several pl. even ed., as stellen (sht'jl'n), zählen (ts'jll'n); and $r r$. before (r), herbst (nh'jrbst):-(i.) obscurely by nasalisation before $m$ and $n:-(e ́, a)$ before $m$ and $n 2 \mathrm{pl}$., dem (dé,omı):-(i) l pl., esel, heben, leder.
 for $e$ long, in several pl., schnee (shnis, shuí), gehen (giin):-(a), or lost "in unaceented root syllables" E. en., erdbeer (e rpo), taguerk ( $\mathrm{t} \sim$-bha), herberg (нh $i$ rbo).

E in initial syllables (209-216). $B e-$, ge-, have generally (a). Be- is $s m$. only pronounced before explodents, as (be, bi, bi), and is otherwise lost, as b $(e)$ gehren, b(i)deuten, b(i)k (ee)ren, b()halten, $r$. (bii) long and accented, (bii faq, bii•rhaq, bii klem). Ge- is fr. (ge-, gi), "only in substantives, adjectives, and adverbs before explodents," otherwise (g) ; fr, also the $e$ being lost, $g$ itself disappears before explodents, as 'biet = gebie', etc. Ent$=$ (int-, unt-) $s m$., and $r r$. ( $a \cdot n t-$ ). Ververy often (vor-).

E final ( $217-235$ ). $E$, as ending in nom. sing. of subst., "in good high German pronunciation unaccented $(-\varepsilon)$," is lost, gen. en . $t n$. and $f r$. when used for een fem., and $\sin$. When used for -on mas.; but -e from old -iu is kept as ( $-e,-i$ ) in menge süsse kürze länge güte, but it is omitted in N. $E$, as ending in dat. sing. and nom. and acc. pl. of subs., is gen. lost. E. as uninflected ending of some adjectives, as böse enge müde öde, is also lost. $E$, as old adverbial ending foradjectives and participles, on the Danube is ( $\partial$ ), on the Lower Inn (i), (ga•ntso ga•ntsi) entirely, (ne'to) neatly, etc. $E$, as mom. ending of adj. after der, die, das, is lost, gen. $t n$. ch., but $r$. kept as $(i, 0) . \quad E$, as fem. ending of adj. derived from old iu, is (io, $\mathrm{i}, i$ ) sm., eine reehte (o re'khtía, a re-klit $t^{2}$ ), more $f$ : (o re $\cdot$ khto), and sin. lost, eine gute (o guut). $E$ in nom.
and acc. pl. neut. derised from $i u$, and of mas. and fem, derived from $e$ and $o$, remains $f r$. as (e), gute herren (gúə de), and $f r$. as (o), (guuto). "On the upper Nab, tn. cn . the remarkable distinction is made, that e neut. from iu is (a), and $e$ mas. and fem. from $e$ and $o$ is lost, $($ déi $)=$ diese herren, frauen; (déia) $=$ diese weiber; (góud shéfi $0 \cdot \mathrm{ks} s{ }^{2}$, kéi), gute schone ochsen, kühe; (góu•da shéi na pfaa), gute schöne pferde. Question: Wie viel Ochsen, Kühe? Ans.: (féiz fi'mf ze ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ks}$ ). Qu.: Wie viel Pferde? Ans.: (féi ro fi mfo ze ks ). Traces of this very old distinction are found elsewhere. Between the Lech and Inn uneducated countrymen, to the questions: Wie viel aepfel, wie viel bimen? will reply, (fïr fymf zeks); but to the question: Wie viel häuser, kinder? reply, (fíora fy'mfo ze ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{kse}$ ). $E$, as ending of the 1 pers. sing. pres., and 1 and 3 pers. pret. ind., and 3 pers. sing. pres. subj. of verbs, is lost, gen. thr. cin., as ich esse, suche, möchte, kömte, machte (i is, zúagh, mekht, kunt, makhat). $E$ in $-e l,-e m,-e n,-e r$, -es, -et, is $\operatorname{sm}$. (a), more $f r$. ( $\partial$ ), or is quite lost, depending on preceding consonant, see under $l, m, n, r, s, t$ below; "certain participles in end, et, by retaining $e$ in pronunciation, have passed entirely orer into the class of adj. and subs., E. $t n$. en., as das (re ned, shír sod; gshe $\cdot k ə t$ )." [The important bearing of this German final $e$ treatment on English final $e$ bas made me give this account at greater length.]

EI, derived from original $i$ (236245), Gothic ei [for the other $e i$ see AI], "in good high German pronunciation (ái)," is:-(aa) rr. in a few words, sei (saa) ; E. regularly before l, as weil (bhaal):-(ái) E. gen. th. en. ed. in more careful pronunciation :-(ii) in 1 pl.:-(EE) in 3 pl., weiss, ikr seid (bhees, iir zeet):-(éi) 1 pl. :-(éi) W. gen. tn. en. ed., drei (drći) :-(ii) according to origin S., and $r$. in other places, as drei (drii), shreiben (shrii-bo): -(o) 1 pl . in bey mir (bo mía).

EU (246-261), see aiso AEU = ûcu, "in good high German pronunciation (ay)," is:-(aa) E. rr. before $l$, as neulich (naa 10 ) ; and in nent., drei (draa):-(aii) E. gen. tn. cn. ed., as new (nái) :-(áu) 1 pl., es reut (ráut) mich: -(ay) on lower Mayn, especially $t n$., feuer (făy ər):-(di) fr., deutch (dditsh): -(aंo) sm. before $n$, freund (fidod) :(ee) 2 pl., neu deutsch (nee deetsh) :-
(eii) lower Mayn, tn. cn, ed.:-(íiu) 1 pl., neu (níiu):-(ii), properly (yy), 2 pl., dentsch (diitsh) : -(i) short $2 p l$. in pronoun euch, when forming an unaccented suffix:-(iiu) sm., neu (níiu):(ói) sm::-(óu) l pl.:-(úi) sm.:-(yy) 1 pl . "In none of these cases does er6 sound according to its constituents, as the Spaniards pronounce it in Europa, namely (éu)," the Spanish sound is, I think, (én).

I , and also where $i \epsilon$ is usually written for a merely long old $i$ (262-293), is:(ai) E. cn. in Katharina (Katrá i), Quirimus (Kiráa), anis firniss horniss paradis (a náis fịrnáis нhu’ruáis pa•radáis), in der stadt (ái də shtod, ái-d shtod). [The interest attaching to the change of (ii) into (ái) induces me to add the following note at length]:"Manuscript of the book of laws (Rechtbuch) of 1332: ein der stat, ein di stat, for in der Stadt, in die Stadt. The form ein for the original in has maintained itself in the written language only in composition (as hinein, eingehen). Written language has generally restored the original long $i$ in many forms in which-following a high German inclination which was active even in very early times (nach einem schon sehr frühe wirksamen hochdeutschen Hange) - $i$ had been resolved into $e i$. Thus, in the xirith and xiv th centuries, not only was the present diminutive termination lin called Lens, but also the adjective terminations -lich and -in were pronounced -leicil and -ein, as : minnigleich, herleich, weibleich, - auldein, hulzein, hurnein. Just as now we say latein from 'latin,' so formerly they said: Martelv for 'Martin,' Christen for 'Christina;' and as we now have Arzeney, Probstoy, they formerly used: Sophey, Marey, Philosophey, etc., resolving the termination $i$ of ' $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{a}$, ' $i-\epsilon$, $i$ into ei :', $]-(\mathrm{E})$ before $r \cdot s m$., mir (mer): -(i) before $n$ and $m$ fr., blind micht nichts (blind nit niks), and in end of unaccented syllables, habe ich ( $\mathrm{uh} a \cdot \mathrm{~b} i$ ), ewig (ee bhi ):-(i) in cases not included under ( $i$ : : - ('j) before $l$, "a very peculiar indescribable sound; like the second syllable of the words hasel sattel, when pronounced without $e$,' E., as still, will, spielen (sht'jl, bh'jl, shp'jl•n), but it is $s m$. so purely pronounced that it seems quite unconneeted with the $l$, as still (shtijl); the same ('j) sound $\sin$. occurs before $r$, as kirche (k'jrakh):-(io)
before $r$ gen., mir (miər), hirsch (Hhírsh), but is sm. pure, as (miii, mhiish); sm. in other places, nicht (níat), nichts (nías), ilm (íam), cuch (íak), nicder (nío do) :-(u) rr., as tisch (tush), lind (kHund), fisch (fush): (a) gen. tn. cn. in the pronouns used as suffixes, as wir, mir (mor); E. tn. cn. in phrases like hab' ich dich, lasse ich nich, thäte ich dir, denke ich nir. (uho badi, la'səmi, taa•təda, de•qkəmə); and in many unaccented syllables, as $-i m$, -lich, $-i n,-l i n=-l i i n:-l o s t ~ s m$. in -ig, -lin $=-l e i n$, imn ; gon. tn. cn. in hat sie, ist sie, sind sie, gib es ihm, ihnon, lass ihn (uhats, ists, zints, gi'ps'u, la $\cdot s^{\prime} n$ ) ; and ich is lost in $d a$ werfe ich dich, wemn ich dir es sage, so will ich dir es machen (do bherrfdi, bhan darz zag, zo bhil dərz ma khə).

IE (294-315), "where the old language has $i a, i o, i e$, and $i e$ is a real diphthong in the southern high Germau dialect ; in good high German pronunciation (ii)." The old diphthong iu gave rise to ie by obscuring $u$, and $e u$ by obscuring $i$. The ic readily passes into $i$ long, and $c u$ into $i i$ long. Verbs conjugated like bieten may in southern places interchange ic with eu, pronounced as (á ív ín ói úi), in 2 and 3 pers. sing. pres., and sm, other tenses and words. IE is called:-(ai $\ddot{i}$ ) in 2 and 3 pers. sing. pres. of verbs conjugated like biegen:-(ii) in dic, wie, je (dii, bhii, ii) :-(éi) sm., as (déi, bhéi, éi), lieb, tief (léib, téif); sm. in 2 and 3 pers. sing. pres. of verbs like biegen:(iin) $\sin$. in last case, and some others, as biegung (bíiu•gq):-as (ía) or ( $\mathrm{E},{ }^{2}$ ) before $m$ and $n s m$.:-(ii) $s m$. in lieb (liib), and gen., sie die (zii dii) ; these last two forms vary in other places:(ía) in the whole upper Rhine and Donau territory from the Vosges to Hungary, tn. ch. and even ed. (día bhíə líab, íom'd) jcmand:-(in) rr. in particular cases, (tíuf díub) tief dicb : (ói) $s m$. in certain words and forms (tóif, dóib) :-(úi) sm. ditto :-(ə) or is lost in suffixed pron. sie, as ich habe sie (ikhuh $a$-bza), gib mir sie (gec marsha).

0 , short, ofteu inclining to $u$, and in gothic $u$ (316-324), see $0=\hat{o}$, is called : - (aa) sm. lengthened before $m$ and $n$, von sohn baron (faun zaan báoraa'n) : -(áu) $s m$. before $l$, hohl (nhául): (o), "as an o inelining to $u$," fri., bodon gold (hoo-dan gold), but ( 0 ) is occasionally heard:-( $\infty$ ) or (e) rr . in some words before $l$, soldut solchor (zœldaa't
$z \ddot{o} \cdot l ə r):-(\delta u) r r$ ．and sporadically in lengthened syllables，as（bóu•don）：－ （ $u$ ，uut）sm．，（buu den kupf）lopf：一 （úว），rr．（búa dəə kúวpf）．

OE ，as umlart of the last o（325－329）， is treated as simple $c$ ，and hence sm． sounds as（e），but gen．as（i）；böcke （bek），oel（iil＇jl）；so that in old books $\ddot{o}$ is written for（i）in other cases．OE is ：－（i）sm．as umlaut of $u$ ，köpfe （kipf）：－（ia）sm．as umlaut of（и́于）， （kíapf）：－（ $\infty$ ）sm．tn．（kœpf）．
$0=\hat{o}$ ，the long 0 ，which inclines to $a$ ， and not to $u$ ，and is au in gothic（330－ 344），is called：－（áu）sm．，ch．bloss （bláus）：$-(a a)$ before $m$ and $n f r$ ．$t n$ ． cn ．and even ed．，strom（shtraam）；and before $r$ in the same places，$c n$ ．，as dorf （darf）；and $s m . c n .$, brod gross（braad graas）：－（aंo）fi．，bloss brod dorf（bláas bráad dáarf）：－（án）rr．，ochs（auks）：一 （óu）$f r$ ．cn．（blous brónd），and sm．be－ fore $r$ ，thor（tóur）：－（in，io）sm．cn．， hoch（rhíu），tod（tíud）：－（o）fr．，so that roth rath，gross gras，arc confused as （root，groos）in the common pronuncia－ tion ：－（óa）rr．cin．，noth（nóat）：－（o） $s m$ ．$t n, c d$ ．：－（u）sm．（bruud gruus）： －（úa）$s m$ ．（grúas），dorf（dúarf），floh （flúa）．
$\mathrm{OE}=\hat{o} e$ ，the umlaut of the last $0=\hat{o}$ （345－362），is：－（a）sm．as umlaut of （a）：－（ái）as umlaut of（áu）：－as（Gi） sm．，böse grösser höher hören schön （bóis grói $\operatorname{sar}$ uhói $\partial r$ rhói r＇n，shó，i）： －（E）as umlant of（a）and before $r$ ：－ （ $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}$ ）as umlaut of（ $\dot{\alpha} \partial$ ）：－（e，ec）gen． tn．，blössen föhen（blee＇sen flce＇ən）， nöthig（ncc－dig），and even rr．before $r$ ， frören（frce＇r＇n）：－（E＇i）as umlant of
 getös（gətio＇s）：－（i）for（y）as umlaut of（ u ）：－（ía）for（ $\mathrm{y}^{\prime}$ a）as umlaut of （úa）：－（œ）tn．sm．：－（y）as rumlaut of （u）：－（y＇e）rr．，böse schön（by＇as shy،＇o）．

U short（363－371）is ：$-(a, a ə) \mathrm{fr}$ ． before $r$ ，as durst（darsht）：－（i）sm．in －ung ：－（o）fi：before $m$ and $n$ ，as jung liund（soq Hhond）；and $s m$ ．before $r$ ；as burgh（borgh）：－（u）pure gen．：－（y，i） $r r$ ．in a few words，uns unter um（yns y －ntar ym）：－（úi） $\operatorname{sm}$ ．before $r$ ，sturm （shtaim）：－（úv）sm．before $r$ ，durst
（dúrsht）：－（a）in unemphatic words， und（od，a），uns suffixed sm．（os），gib uns（gi•bas），－burg，－berg，often both （barg）：－lost $s m$ ．in du，as was will＇st $d u$（bhos bhilsht）．

UE，as umlaut of the last $u$（372）， is only $r r$ ．（ y ），but is generally treated as $i$ ，see I．Even in reading books $\ddot{u}$ is pronounced as $i$ ．

U long，or $\imath e$ ，＂Gothic and Scandina－ vian o perhaps hovering in pronuncia－ tion between（ 0 ）and（ 10 ），has been better retained in Low than in High Germany，where it carly passed into the diphthong ou，av，ve．But it has remained especially in the diphthongal form（ou）by the northern affluents of the Danube．The tendency of this sound towards（u）is so strong，that Dutchmen and Englishmen，although they write it oe and oo respectively， pronounce it usually as（uu），＂（373－ $385)$ ，is called ：－（ $a$ ，da，$a^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ）E． $t n$ ．$c n$ ．in some words before $m, n$ ， as blume（blaam bláom），muhme （maam maiam）：－（oo） 1 pl．，as gut fuss （good foos）， 1 pl ．before l，as stukl （shtool）：－（ói） 1 pl．gut blut bruder mutter（góid blóid brói•der mói tar） ［compare Leeds（góid）good］：－（6u）fr．， bube buch（bóub bóulsh）：－（u）pure， sm．，and ed．gen．（buub buukh）：－（ai） $r r$ ．，stzute（stui to）：－（и̂ว）＂from the Alps to the Danube below the Lech， and above the Lech to the Mayn regions， where（ $\mathbf{u} \boldsymbol{a}, \mathrm{u}$ ）interchange，＂bube buch （búa búakh）：－（a）before $l \mathrm{sm}$ ．，schale （shal）：－（ə）in unemphatic syllables $f r$ ．，as zu uns（， $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{s} \supset-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{yns}, \mathrm{t}$, sə－r－yns），zu dir（ t ，sa díar），handshuh（rha－ndsha）： －is lost in unemphatic syllables，as $z u$ thun（． $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{s}$ tuun）．
$\mathrm{UE}=\ddot{u} e$ ，the umlaut of the last $\mathrm{U}=e$ н （386－393，＂in good high German pro－ nunciation（ y ），＂is sounded as：－$\left(\mathbf{E}^{\prime},{ }^{\prime}\right)$ $f_{r}$ ．，as umlaut of（ $a_{0} a$ ），before $m$ and $n$ ， blümlein（blé， $\left.\boldsymbol{}^{\circ} \mathrm{m}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}\right)$ ：－（ee）sm．as umlaut of（oo）：－（éi）sm．as umiaut of（óu）：－ （i）$s m$ ．as umlaut of（u）：－as（iv）$s m$ ． as umlaut of（йə）：－as（ói） 1 pl．，müde füssc（móid fóis）：－（y，y＇o）as umlaut of（ $\mathbf{u}, \mathrm{u} \partial$ ），where $i i$ is not pronounced as （i）：－（ә）$r$ ．before $l$ ，as kühle（kal）．

Consonants．

B（394－413）is：－（b），＂pure Italian $b$, ＂gen．th．ch．，at the end of words， lei（b）；in the middle of words before consonants，er $g i(\mathrm{~b}) t$ ；uncertainly at the beginning of words，oseillating between（ $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}$ ）in（b）cy，（b）ier，（b）lar，
（b）rand：－（f）in a few words and places， as $a(\mathrm{f}) e r$ ，gel（f）licht，kno（f）lauch； $p \ddot{(f) e l, ~ s c h a u u(f) e n, ~ z w i(f) c l:-(\mathrm{p}) ~ g e n . ~}$ tn．$c n$ ．，＂pure Italian $p$ ，not an affected German $p$ ，after which a certain amount of breath may be perceived，＂at the
beginning of words "where the high German, with an uncertainty peculiar to himself, cannot make any consistent distinction between $p$ and $b$, so that in romance languages he is prone to confuse beau and peau, boule and poule; a fault which declaimers seek to remedy by introducing a certain after-breath, especially in foreign words, so that for ( p )anzer, ( p ) ein, ( P )alermo, ( P ) aul, one hears ( $\mathrm{p}-\mathrm{Hh}$ ) anzer, ( p -нh)ein, ( $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{Hh}$ ) alermo, ( $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{Hh}$ )aut. This seems to have been the origin of the middle Rhenish ( $\mathrm{p}-\mathrm{Hh}$ ), and high Gernan pf at the beginning of nonGerman words. And it is to the circumstance that initial $b$ has been used as $p$ from the earliest times that there are so few genuine German words beginning with $p "\left[\operatorname{see}\left(1097, c^{\prime} .1113\right.\right.$, $a^{\prime}$. 1129, $\left.\left.d^{\prime} .1136, a.\right)\right]:-(\mathrm{p})$ before lost $t$, $\operatorname{er} g i(\mathrm{p})=g i b t$, in which case, as always in such elisions, the remaining consonant is more strongly pronounced [that is, either (kipp) or (ki.p), see p. 799, note, on energetic Italian consonants]; "it is also a rule that final consouants are strengthened when a terminal syllable follows, even when it consists of a lost vowel ":-(pf) [probably ( pph )] when the initial syllable be, reduced to (b), is welded on to a following (Hh) or (rh), as (pfendt) behende, (pf)rait bereit:-(bh) except initially, gen. tu. cn., obacht, in the beginning of words from the Latin, (Bhe nadikt) Benedietus; "in -ben, this b pronounced as (bh) is fused into (bhm), that is ( -m )" [this is not distinct enough, compare the Westmorland and Cumberland ( $\mathrm{b}_{6}$ ) in this situation]:-often lost E. (búa gro hhol kar) bube grob halb korb, sm. in the end and middle, (Hhan, gen gan) haben, geben [comparable to our loss of medial $v$ ].

C (414-415) is in E. in words of Latin origin perfect ( k ), as in Italian :-sc, sk, is $s m$. called $s t, s p$.

CH, not initial (416-435), is as a rule ( $\mathrm{kh}, \mathrm{kh}$ ), the following are exceptions. CH is:-(f) in E. cn., sei $(f) t$ for seicht, gi(f)t for gicht [compare our usual (f) for the lost guttural]:-(g) $s m$. in -lich followed by a vowel:-(gh, $g$ h) E. cn. $t n$. at the end of uninflected words, (bogh) bach, (imagh) ich machc: - ( k ) before s gen., in -bach final and a few words:-(q) in the termination -lich, fruind(liq), herz(liq) [compare our dialcetal -ling for -ly, from ags. $-l i g]$ : -lost, $f r$. in various places, at
end, (i) ich, (túy) tuch; in middle after $l$, (bh $i \cdot l ə r$ ) welcher; after $r$, (a ki’a) eine kirche; before s, (bんáə'sə) wachsen; before $t$, (-it) -icht, (nit) wicht. It is in similar cases sometimes inserted, achselworm =assel [woodlouse], knichtcl $=k n \ddot{u t t c l}$, (rou*kht'n) ruthe, (o.khtom) othem [for athem breath].

D (436-451) is:-(d) pure final, medial between vowels, initial where the high German wavers between ( t , d) :-(g) rr. before $l$, (si gl ) sidel, a seat; $r$. after $n$ [it does not appear whether his $n g$ means (q) simply or not, and as this change of $n d$ into $n g$ is interesting in connection with our participial -ing, I give his orthography in Roman letters: beng binden, bleng blind, feng finden, gefonga~ gefunden, empfonga empfunden, keng kinder, $a^{2}$ lengə linde]:-(r) before ending em, (buram) bodem:-(.t) gen. cn. tn. initial, no constant distinction between (. d, t) being made; E. cn. tur. at end and in middle before lost vowel, (hhent) hände:-lost, sm. at end, (bo) bad, (kshái) gesheit ; sm. between a vowel and final em, en, (bom) bodem; fr. after $l, m, n$, and before a terminal $e l, e m, e n$, $e r$, the $l, m, n$, is then strengthened, ( $a \cdot \mathrm{n}$ ər fe $\cdot \mathrm{lar}$ ) ander felder, (bhu nər) wunder; sim. at the beginning of $d a$, der, die, das, etc., (ee-z i dis taat) ehe dass ich dieses thäte; ( $i \cdot \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{ta}$ ) desto, (ә) haim = daheim [interesting in relation to the vexed question of dialectal ' $a t=t h a t]$. "When the article appears simply as ( d ), aid the following word begins with an explodent, the (d) cannot be heard alone [für sich selbst]. The preparation made by the tongue to pronounce it can only be perceived by the greater distinctness [entschiedenheit] with which the initial sound of the following word is then heard," as in the region of upper Rhine and Danube [using his orthography in roman letters], '•Bueben die bucben, 'Cutschen die Futchen, 'Dieb' dic Diebe, 'Gans 'Gäns' die Gans die Gänsc, '•Kunst die Kunst, 'PPillen die Pille, ',Tag' die Tage, 'Zung (die Zunge). [The examples are quoted at length, because of the analogous case of the dialectal $t$ ' for the in English, where I think ('t) is often heard, (1325 c). Certainly ( t *buu•b'u), -where the tongue is placed in position for ( $t$ ) and the lips in that for (b), and (, $\mathrm{t}^{*}$ b) must be distinguished from ( t tw), which is rather ( $\mathrm{t}^{t}$ bhi) with a much looser
position of the lips-is quite different in effect from (.buu b'n). The release from ( $, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}$ ) simultancously on to the rowel (uu) produces a perceptibly different glide as well as a distinct ' hardness of edge.' so to translate entschiedenheit. Similarly for ( $\mathrm{t}^{*}$ kunst). But in (, $,-, t, s u \cdot q)$ nothing but (' ' $, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{suq}$ . tsuq) occurs to me as possible.] "On the contrary, when this $d$ occurs before rowels, it has the appearance of forming part of the word, and hence a radical initial (.t d) is $s m$. omitted as if it were merely the article," (on ai.ks"l) for deichsel [carriage pole], "and it is $s m$. prefixed where not radical," (dərarbarn) erarbeiten. [There seems to be a similar usage in an adder, a nag, in English.]

F (452-462) is:-(r) E. cn. tn. ed. after rowels, as $\operatorname{gru}(\mathrm{r}) t, \operatorname{kra}(\mathrm{r}) t$, but elsewhere (f):-(pf) rr. initial:-(bh) rr. medial. FF, answering to low German [and English] p, is $s m .(r)$ and $\sin$. (f). F is $r$. lost.

G (463-490) is:-(g), "pure French $g$," $f r$. at end and middle of mords, $a u(\mathrm{~g}), j a(\mathrm{~g}) d$, and regularly after $n$, [meaning ( $q \underline{q}$ ) ! 5; but sin. only immediately before consonants, as ma(g)d:wavering between ( $k, g$ ) initially:( k ) sm . at end or middle, especially after $d, s, t:-(g \mathrm{~h}, g \mathrm{~h})$, "also in good high German pronunciation," fr. at end or after rowels, in the termination -ig, sm. before consonants:-" changes according to ancient custom into $i$ before $d$, and in certain rerbal terminations st and $t$ : jaid for jagd, maid for magd, du fraist, er frait, gefrait, from fragen, etc. This $a i$ is more usual along the Alps than N. of Danube, and has the sounds described under EI, from (EE) onwards." [This is interesting in relation to the formation of diphthongs in English from ags. -ag, -ag]:-(k) $s m$. final after $n$ [that is ( $q \mathrm{k}$ ) is said for (q)] in $\operatorname{Din}(\mathrm{k}), \operatorname{gesan}(\mathrm{k})$, etc.:-(q) $r$. in ending -ig:-(.t) fr. initial before $l$, n, (.t)lanz = glanz, (.t, núə) genug, (.t.nu-ma) genommen [compare English (di) for (gl), and presumed Cumberland (tn.s.) for know ; but is not this (. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{n}$ ) properly ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}$ ) $!\mathrm{]}:-(\mathrm{bh})$ rr. medial, (ploo-bhon) plagen:-lost, fr. final and medial, before consonants, and final vowelless $\mathrm{el}, \mathrm{cm}, \mathrm{cn}, \mathrm{es}, \epsilon \mathrm{t}$, and sm . in -an for -agen, the preceding rowel glides on to the $n$ and is nasalised, so that all trace of $g$ disappears; $s m$. the $n$ is made (q), and the preceding vowel
not nasalised. The prefix ge, reduced to ( $g$ ), is heard before an explodent only by its greater distinctness, see ( d ) for die, under D aborc. " G is sm . added in pronunciation to syllables ending in a rowel or $l, n, r$ [using his spelling], E. $r$. schangen schauen, aug au, hängen hüuen, make hay, kniegen kinien; ilg, lilg lilie, galg gaig [interesting for the Westmorland usages, and also in Robert of Brunne]; $s m$. to $s$, sch, as fleifsg fleiss, mifchgen mischen.

H (491-502) is:-g [with some of its pronunciations] $s m$. in middle and end, and even commencement of some foreign words, as (groo-las) Hieronymus :-(Hh) initially:-(gh, gh) fr. in the end and middle (in the Alps, in the Zillerthal, also at beginning) of words, and immediately before consonants:(bh) rr. medially, (gəzaa•bhə) gesehen : -lost, "as in good high German, in the middle and at end of words where spoken as above" : $-f r$. at beginning of suffixes her, hin, when following consonants, ( $a \cdot b$ b, $a \cdot b i$ ) for herab, hinab, sm . in -heit, (bóu'sat) bosheit. " H is $s m$. prefixed to words beginning with a consonant, as (Hho)baus $=a b a u s=$ hinab; (нh) art $=$ art $=$ ort; (нh) idruclen $=$ in drucken [chew the cud]; (нh)inter, (Hh) ̈̈nter = unter :" [These omissions and additions initially contrast strongly with the English habits.]
$J(503-506)$ initial is $f r$. (g), "that is, passes into the distinct consonant (g), just as $w$ becomes (b)," (Gáuk'l) Jacob, and is added finally, especially after $i$, hence old $y=i j$.
$\mathrm{K}(507-520)$ is: $(\mathrm{kh}, k \mathrm{~h}) s m$. at end of stem-syllables after $1, n, r:-(\mathrm{g})$ $s m$. at end of uninflected words; and after $n$ [that is, ( qg ) is used for ( qk )]: -rr. (нh), especiall بafter (q), (baqнh) bank:-(k) pure, as in French, Italian, or Spanish, rery gen. medially, sm . finally, gen. initially before $l, r, r:-$ (kIh), "like a pure $k$ with subsequent sensible breath, and also in all high Germany, cn. th. ed.," initially before a rowel, (kh h)alt, ( $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{h}$ )ind, ( k h h)ornmen, (kh h)urz; sm. before a consonant ( k Th ) lein, ( k 1 h ) necht; and in the same places medially and finally :-(.t) $r$ rr. initially before $l$ and $\mu$, ( t laa، $\left., \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{t}}, \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{t}}\right)$ kilem, (, t, le'ə) Kile, (.t nakht) knecht:lost rr. finally (muuri) musik. [The interest attaching to post-aspiration (1136, a) induces me to give the following note at length.] "In low Germany
$k$ does not reeeive the breath after it, which is common in high Germany; and this pronunciation ought to prevail generally if we upper Germans had only first learned not to confuse pure $k$ with $g$,-beeause we should otherwise confuse $g a, g c, g i$, ete., with $k a, k e, k i$, etc., just as we now fail to distinguish $g l, g n, g r$, from $k l, k n, k r$. In Catullus's verse: 'Chommoda dicebat si quando eommoda vellet,' the ch appears to answer precisely to our $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{h}$. [Catullus's epigram is numbered 82 and 84 , the whole of it is valuable.] This hard breathing (starke Hauchen) is common to many mountain people, as well as to us highlanders. Thus in the Apennines, the 'Gorgia fiorentina' is remarkable, and has earned for Florentines the nick-names 'hoboi, hahafagivoli,' beeause they persistently replace $c$ by $h$. The Andalusian breathes the $h$ in Arabie words, where other Spaniards omit it: ' Allhambra, Almohada, Albahaca, Atahona.' In the patois of the Vosges, a strong breathing, like our $c h$, replaces even $r, s$ and sch-chöch (sex six), cöch (coxae, les cuisses), guicho ${ }^{*}$ (garçon), mácho~ (maison), ûchêi (uccello, oiscaut, wâch (vert)." [We see here the usual confusions about aspiration, post-aspirations, and guttural hisses.]

L (521-545), "a certain obseure vowel-sound attaches to the semi-vowels ( 1 mnqr ), the sudden termination of which is what makes them really consonants; hence $l$ aets as a pure cousonaut solely on those vowels which follow it in the same syllable, but on the preceding it acts to some extent (gewissermassen) as a vowel, by either forming a diphthong with it, that is, slurred $(\operatorname{lcgi}) t)$, or quite purely and not united with it at all, that is, unslurred (nicht legirt)." [There is a difficulty in exactly interpreting the above into palaeotype. It seems as if the first case meant ('l), where (') forms a diphthong with preeeding vowel, so that all gold gulden $=$ ( $a^{\prime} 1 \mathrm{~g}$ go'ld $\mathrm{g} u^{\prime} \mathrm{l} \cdot \mathrm{d}^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ ), a complete fracture being established, and thus faul, properly (fául), beeomes (fáll), see under $A \mathrm{U}(1359, d)$. The second case would then be simply pure $l$, as (olt) alt, not (ó'lt).] L is :-(i) $r$. fiually, as (kaa-ti) for (kaa'tl) Katharina:( $\mathrm{L}^{\mathrm{i}},\left\llcorner^{J}\right.$ ) after $a, o, u$, (ó $\mathrm{Lid}^{2}$ ) alt [produeing a suffracture], and, when atter $e, i$, this vowel becomes [('j), or indeterminate palatal breath?: :-(1) $f r$. as
"generally in North Germany, only after $e, i$," (bild) bild ; this (1) is generally preserved when a consonant has been omitted between it and preceding vowel, as (al) adel:-('l) gen. after a, $o, u$, and an altered $e, i, \ddot{o}, \ddot{i}$ becoming (a, e'z, a). Final EL beeomes wholly ('l) $g \in n . c n, t n$. after linguals, and nearly ('l) sm . in stem-syllables, where the $e$ or $\ddot{o}$ would be otherwise ('j), as (hh'l) hölle. Initial fL, GL, KL, pL, $r$. take ('l), as (b'lood) blatt. L is also $r$. (r), or lost before rowels, or added. LL medial does not shorten preceding vowel in E., so that fall qual rhyme.

M and N (546-555) frequently nasalise the preceding rowel in Bavaria when it is ( $a, e, a$ ), or when these are the first elements of a preceding diphthong, making them ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{o}$ ), but do not affeet a preeeding (i, $u, \partial$ ). Sueh sounds as (lam man rái, $n$ tráum shœe. n), common in North Germany, never oceur, but are replaced by ( $1 a$ in $m a_{6} n$ ráa $i_{1}, 11$, tráa um shean). The nasalisation is only omitted when an intervening eonsonant has been lost.

M (556-561) sm. sounds as ( n ) at end of stem-syllables, and even in dat. sing. ; after $l, n$, and also initially, it is sm. (bh).

N (562-609) in stem-syllables, before $d$ and $s$, is $s m .(\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{mb}, \mathrm{mp})$, and is sometimes $m$ finally. $N$ is gen. lost at end of stem-syllables, when no vowel follows, and the preeeding vowel is then nasalised. [Much is here omitted, as not of interest for present purposes.] The final EN becomes ( $0, n,{ }^{\prime} n$ ), very frequently ( $\partial$ ), and is often only shewn by nasalising the preeeding vowel. The (' n ) alone,-beeoming ( m ) after labials-is preserved in the E., and the (a) alone in W., but, to avoid hiatus, the $W$. inserts the $n$ before a following vowel. The $\mathbf{E}$. also reinserts the $n$ omitted in stem-syllables before following vowel. These habits give rise to an inserted pure euphonic $n$, where there was none originally, as wie-n-i sag=wie ich sage. In some words the $n$ of the article has thus become fixed, as $($, nost $)=n s t$, and similarly an original $n$ is omitted, as ganz'atürl'=natürlich.

NG (612-614) is generally (q), but sm. (m2), as (da dum du•mod du•mo) for der dung (dünger) düngen; (nhu'mor)=hungor ; aud -um is used for -ung in E.
P (615-618) is (p), rr. (b) ; pf rarcly
(bv) final, and $s m$. ( $\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{prb}, \mathrm{pu}$ ?) initial - p-hann, $p$-hêrd, p-halz, $p$-hêffer $=$ Pfanne, Pferd, Pfalz, Pfeffer. $Q U(620)$ is regarded as $k w$ or $g w$, and the $w$ is often omitted.

R (621-637), which is generally ('r), changes the preceding (a) to (a, áa, ùa, i), (óu) to (óиә), (e) to (a, e, E'ว, íz), ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}$ ) to ( $\mathrm{E}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{i}$ ), (i) to ( E, ía), (o) to ( $a$, a, áa, uo), (óu) to (óиэ), ( $($ ) to ( E ), (u) to (a, éa, o, ui, ü), as already seen under the vowels. $R$ initial " in some regions near the Alps, on the Rot and Ilz, etc., is pronounced with a very perceptible aspiration, a sound which seems to be the same as the old hr, as in Hrodpert, Hraban," which S. writes hr, $h h r$. [He has used $h h$ for (gh). Whether this sound $h h r$ is (rh) or (ghr) it is difficult to say. In his own symbols he writes $\partial^{\sim}$ Hràb, $\partial^{\sim}$ Hring, $\partial^{*}$ Hroufn, ghhràd, ghhrous, ghhridn =geritten, and he says:] "Before d, $t, z$, only the $h h$ of this $h h r$ is heard, as è̀ $\mathrm{ehh}^{\text {‘ }} \mathrm{d}=$ erd, hè̀hh‘d $=$ herde, fuhh't fort," etc. [which may mean (E'əghd, mhe'agh, fught), etc. In art. 663, referring to this place, he says, "where $r$. sounds as $h h^{6}$ or ch,"' which gives (kh) and not (gh). The phenomenon is very interesting, and should be examined. It may be only uvular after all.] R is:-(1) in a few cases:-(r) in W. almost universally; this is the case in part of E., with $r$, $r r$, at the end of stemsyllables, but $r$ is constantly considered as simple $r$ in E. [which means that the preceding rowel is not "stopped," but may be lengthened, or glides on to the consonant with a long vowel-glide; in fact is regarded and treated precisely as a long vowel, as in English]; the $r$, $r r$, have their due effect only before a following vowel. R may sm . be replaced by $s$ in the forms frieren verlieren, but not in gefrôren verlôren; and sm . becomes s before $z$. [These interchanges of ( $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}$ ) are old, and valuable to note as existing.] R between vowels and consonants in stem-syllables is $f r$. lost, (daf duaf) dorf, and even after a consonant and before a vowel, as (ghod) grade, (shaqk) shrank. In final syllables, when no vowel follows, $R$ is usually lost in E., and is consequently cuphonically inserted between rowels where there was no original $r$ [precisely as in English], and this cuphonic $r$ occasionally comes to be fixed on to the following word, as (o róu'z'n) ein asen
[beam]. An obscure rowel (o) is inserted between $r$ and the following consonant in W., as (doraf) dorf [just as in our Irish after trilled $r$, in (wərak) work, etc.].

S, SS, SZ (638-663). [Schmeller writes $s z$ for $s, s s, s z$, of ordinary spelling, which comes from an old high German $z$ with a tail, something like 3 , and corresponds to Scandinavian and low German $t$; and $s, s s$, for those $s, s s$, which correspond to $s$ in Scandinarian and low German. The ss is used after a vowel to "stop" or "sharpen" it.] S in E. cn. tn.ed. " is always soft $=$ (z), not merely where it is so in good high German pronunciation, but even before a $t$ of uninflected forms," as $\mathcal{A}(\mathrm{z}) t, i(\mathrm{z}) t, b i(\mathrm{z}) t$ [possibly (azd, izd)], as $t=(\mathrm{d})$ at the end of uninflected forms in E., see below ; (azt, azst, azdt) are, howerer, all possible]. In the same places SS is ( $z$ ) at end of uninflected forms, $\operatorname{gwi}(\mathrm{z}), k u(\mathrm{z}), \operatorname{Prcu}(\mathrm{z}), r o(\mathrm{z})$, and $r r$. in inflected. $\mathrm{SZ}=(\mathrm{z})$ at end of inflected forms, E. cn. tn.ed. $\mathrm{S}=(\mathrm{s})$, almost gcn. en. tn. ed. after consonants, as $\operatorname{dach}(\mathrm{s}), \operatorname{nich}(\mathrm{s})$; and E. cn. after vowels in inflected forms; E. gen. before $t$ in inflected forms, $a_{c}(\mathrm{~s}) t$, $f a(\mathrm{~s})$ ten. $\mathrm{SZ}=(\mathrm{s})$ in the middle and at the end of inflected forms, in E., and $s m$. of some uninflected forms, " as in good high German pronunciation," as ha(s), $n u(\mathrm{~s}) . \quad \mathrm{S}=(\mathrm{zh})$ initially, before $p, t, k$, quite gen. cn. tn. ed., and even before $b$ in names of places, as Regensburg (re'qzhpurg), Miesbach (míə zhpə), and occasionally before a vowel, as (zh)unst $=$ sonst [Schmeller uses here his sign for (zh), see SCH]. $\mathrm{S}=(\mathrm{zh}) f r$. after $r$ at end of words and syllables, unser(zh), $\operatorname{vater}(\mathrm{zh})$, für $(\mathrm{zh}) i=$ für sich; almost gen. cr. $t n$. ed. after $r$ and before $t$, $d u r(\mathrm{zh}) t$, or also $d u r(\mathrm{sh}) t=d u r s t$. [Schmeller here distinguishes his two signs ( $\mathrm{zh}, \mathrm{sh}$ ), and both are possible, (.turzhsh, t) most probable; his signs for (zh, sh) being sch, foh, differ so slightly that confusion is inevitable, and hence I go by his original references to this place in his art. 92.] " $\mathrm{S}=(\mathrm{sh}$, $z h)$ before $p, t$, and after every sound, from the upper Isar to the Vosges, from the Spessart range to the Saar, $c n$. tn. ed.," $A n g(\mathrm{zh}) t, \quad b i(\mathrm{zh}) t, \quad C a(\mathrm{sh}) p e r$, $H a(\mathrm{sh}) p c l$, ha(zh)t, $i(\mathrm{zh}) t$, kan(zh)t, $\operatorname{kun}(\mathrm{zh}) \mathrm{t}, l u(\mathrm{sh}) t i g, M i(\mathrm{zh}) t, \operatorname{sag}(\mathrm{zh}) t$, Schwe (zh)ter, die schön (zh)t. [Here I have given all his examples, because he refers to this art. 654 , in both art. 92
for ( zh ), where the reference is misprinted 644 , and in art. 93 for (sh), so that the variations, which are extremely remarkable, are intentional. The sound (zh) is generally unknown in Germany, its introduction in Bavaria, and generally the use of ( $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ ) final, are the exact German counterparts of the Somersetshire initial (z, zh, v) for (s, sh, f). To a north German these final $(z, z \mathrm{z})$ are simply impossibilities, without long training.] In E. cn. tn. $a m(\mathrm{sh}) e l$, dro(sh)el $=$ amsel, drossel. $\quad$ S $=(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})$ rr. cn. E. after $l$, fel $(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})$ en, hall $, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})=$ felsen, hals; and atter $n$, before $t$, it $s m$. becomes ( $(\mathrm{d}, z$ ), absorbing $i$, as $f e n(\mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{z}) e r, f i n(\mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{z}) e r=$ fenster, finster; and sm. initially, as (d, dz) arg, $(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})$ ener $=$ sarg, seldner. [ It is with considerable doubt that I give ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}$ ) as the translation of Schmeller's $z$, as distinguished from his $t z$, which is ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{s}$ ). In art. 94 he merely calls his $z$ a soit (weiches) German Z. The difficulty arises from the oppositions soft, sharp, and soft, hard. But ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}$ ) seems to agree best with the above examples.] $\mathrm{SZ} \sin .=(\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})[$ misprinted as old high German $z$ with a tail $],(i, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{z}) \in s,(\mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{~d}, z)$ dasz, ( $\mathrm{di}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{z}$ ) disz, dieses, ( $\mathrm{t} \dot{\mathrm{t}}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{z}$, t $t i, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{z}$ ) $i h r$ [in which Schmeller detects a remnant of the tailed $z$, as derived from $t$, art. 38]. In some words and places S is omitted, especially after $r$ before $t$, (dur, t ) durst, and $s m$. final, and especially after $r=(k \mathrm{~h})$.
SCH (664-667), "at the beginning of words, both before a vowel and a consonant, has usually the soft sound, namely that which is heard in the French syllables $j a, j e, g e, j i, g i, j o, j u$, not that heard in the syllables cha, che, chi, cho, chu," [that is, distinctly ( zh )], gen. cn. tn. ed. in schaff, schiff. [Sch in German is only written before vowels, $l, m, n, r$, and here no difficulty stands in the way of (zhaaf, zhif, zhlaargen), etc., but when we find Schmeller, art. 649 , assume initial $s p, s t, s k$, to be (zh) $p$, (zh) $t,(\mathrm{zh}) k$, it is possible that there must be some mistake. He does not mean stehen to be (shteen), as in high German, (zh ten) seemsimpossible, and hence probably (zh deen) is said, and we must interpret (zh)p, (zh)t, (zh)k, as (zhb-, zh ${ }^{\text {d }}$-, zhg-), which would be quite consistent with the absence of sharp distinction betwecn initial ( $\mathrm{p} \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{k} \mathrm{g}$ ) in Bavarian. The difficulties arising from partial phonetic writing are here very evident.]
$\mathrm{SCH}=(\mathrm{sh})$ always medially, but finally it is (zh), except in E. before a lost final $e$. [Schmeller here, art. 667, note, says that this is the case "in good high German pronunciation, but only after long vowels and diphthongs: Rau(zh), Flei(zh), deut(zh), whereas on the Nab they say men(sh), deut(sh)." Now, independently of the impossibility of (dáy,tzoh), which should at least be (,dáy,d,zh), I certainly never noticed any bigh German pronunciation of final sch as (zh), nor have I seen it noticed as occurring. Rapp (Phys. d. Spr. 4, 42), referring to Schmeller's upper German (zh), seems to have overlooked this reference to high German. Rapp considers it " more exact to say that popular speech everywhere uses neither (sh) nor (zh), but an indifferent sound lying between them, for which our theory has no sign." This could only be ('zh), which would shew itself in the usual way as (shzh) before and (zhsh) after voiced letters. The interest to us lies in the Western English dialectal usages, their intimate relation with West Saxon, the use of Saxon $f$ as $v$, the probable development of (th) from an original (dh), the dialectal habits of confusing voiced and voiceless letters, with the received sharp distinctions. Philologically these confusions are of great importance.]
$\mathrm{T}(668-681)$ initial $=(, t), \quad$ " pure Italian $t$, not ( $\mathrm{t} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { h }}, \mathrm{thh}$ ), but is often confused with $d$." [Schmeller complains much, in a note, p. 150, of that pronunciation, first, in the German pronunciation of foreign words, as T-hitan, T-hitus, T-hartarey, T-hee, T-hacitus, T-hempel, and adds:] "This inserted $h$ after initial $t$ is quite inappropriate in foreign words, but it is disgusting (widerlich) and affected (affectirt), and as it were a mere mockery of our hardness of hearing (wie Spott auf unsere Harthörigkeit), when we hear it used in genuine German words by declaimers, actors, etc., so that we have to hear Tag, Tod, teutsch, theuer, That, as T-hag, T-hod, t-heutseh, t-hcuer, T-hat, etc.,' and also almost universally in the middle and end of many words. But in uninflected forms, final $t$, $t t$, often become ( $d$ ), which disappears before $l$ and $n$, as $b i(d)$, bla(d), bre(d), Go(d); (be $\left.{ }_{1} \mathrm{~d}_{1}, \mathrm{n}\right)$ betteln. [Here, again, Schmeller has a note implying that $t$ final is ( d ) "in good high German pronunciation only after
long rowels and diphthongs: Blûd, bráid, Hûd, Rad Rath, rôd roth, wáid weit, zaid Zeit." His symbols are left uninterpreted. This promunciation is not usually admitted.] TW medial becomes (p), gen. cn. tn. (i.pa ípos) etwas etwasz, and E. ( $a^{\cdot} \cdot \mathrm{p}^{\prime}$ m na'p'm $a^{-}$bm $\left.a \cdot \mathrm{bm}_{\mathrm{d}} \mathrm{d}\right)$ all $=a t h \mathrm{~cm}$. T or T'I medial is sometimes ( r ), as ( $a \cdot \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{m}$ ) athem, (bheddr) wetter. T is often lost, in conjugation endings, after $s$, sch; but is sometimes added after $s, c h, f$.

W (682-687), " as a $u$ contracted to a consonant (zum Consonanten verkïrzt), has usually the sound known in German," [certainly (bh) so far sonth as Bavaria. How ean German (bh) be considered as a compressed (u)? A key is furnished by Helmholtz, who says (Lehre von den Tonempfindungen, 3rd ed. p. 166, and p. 157 of my translation): "for the rowels of the lower series, O (o in more) and U (oo in poor), the opening of the mouth is contracted by means of the lips, more for $U$ than for 0 , while the cavity is enlarged as much as possible by depression of the tongue" ( $1283, b$ ). This makes German $u=\left(A_{u}\right)$, with tongue as if for (A), quite low, whereas English $u$ has the tongue high. The proportion $\left(A_{u}\right):(b h)=(u)$ : (w), is perfectly correct. I have always assumed German $u=$ English oo. This must be my faulty appreeiation.] " This sound is sometimes so indistinet (unentschieden) as to be scarcely observed," thus $r$. (aal) for (bhaal) weit, ( $a^{\circ} \mathrm{rg} a \mathrm{q}$ ) argwohn, (mi` dikhə) mittwochen [corresponding to our(Gri-nidzh) Grecnwich]. "Sometimes it is too consonantal, and becomes quite (b), as (B)urzgarten for Wurzgarten," (báil, bos, bu) weil, wasz, wo and after $b, n$, it becomes (m). Possibly mir for wir, common in all High Germany, has a similar origin. $W$ is often inserted between vowels as a consonantal termination of an open syllable, (íets geebh-i) jetzt geh ich, (bhos tuabh-i) was thueich.
Z. (688-690) initially $=(, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{s})$, after vowels $s m$. (s), finally, "in uninflected forms, it is soft" ( $\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{x}}$ ), as Blif, $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})$, Klo( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}), \operatorname{Pla}(, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z})$ which Schmeller admits to be good high German after vowels and diphthongs, as fiveuz. Schweiz, Gciz, that is, (kráy, d,z, shbhái d. $z$, gád. $x$ ) ; this must be taken with hisremarks on $\operatorname{Sch}(1367, c)$ ], but before (even lost) inflectional syllables it becomes "sharp" (.t.s), as (mi,t'n krái, t, s) mit dem K̈reuze.
"On the Sharpening and non-Sharpering of Consonants" (691). [The German phrase "sharpening a consonant" shews that it "stops" a vowel, that is, that the preceding vowel is short, and glides strongly on to the consonant.] "The peculiarity of the dialect- east of the [river] Lech, [in Bavaria], in pronouncing a consonant at the end of uninflected forms soft [roiced], and lengthening the preceding vowel, when transferred to the pronunciation of literary German, is offensive to educated ears whenever the consonant should be sharp [voiceless] and preeeding vowel short. Before the inflectional syllables the consonants receive their proper sharpening, and the lengthened consonants are generally shewn by their diphthongal [fractured] dialectal pronunciation. Now when the native is speaking high German, he pronounces simple rowels, but it is repugnant to his feelings to lengthen them before the sharpened [voiceless] consonants. Hence he unsuspectingly shortens the long vowel before $c h$, taking the place of his own (gh), in bruchen, Sprache, riechen, Buches, Aluchen, Kuchen; also before $f$ in Schäfer, schlafen, strafen, traf; before $k$ in Ekel, Haken, spuken, erschrak, stak, buk; before sz, with short vowel and distinct $s s$, instead of with lengthened rowel before a somewhat softened (gemildertem) ss [meaning ( $z$ ) or (' $z$ )? ?], in Blösze, Flösze, Füsze, genieszen, gieszen, gröszer, grïszen, and after this analogy, the South Germans say bitten for bieten, blutten for blûten, Guïtter for Güter, ratten for râten $=$ rathen, etc. This is properly a provincialism, to be aroided by educated speakers. Yet a similar error seems to have crept into the received high German pronunciation, in so far as a short rowel is used in several words before tt, as Blatter, Natter, Futter, Mutter, whereas most dialects lengthen it as $\hat{u}, \hat{u}$." [This passage is quoted mainly to shew how local habits override historical nsage with respect to quantity, and especially to shew the influence which roiced and roiceless consonants have over the real or apparent or accepted quantity of the preceding vowel, and to confirm my previouslyexpressed opinion $(1274, b)$ that vowelquantity, as an existing phenomenon in living languages and dialects, has to be entirely restudied on a new basis.]
ii. Winkler on Low German and Friesian Dialects.

In a note to p. 1323 I gave the title of Winkler's great Dialecticon, into which I had then merely peeped. It was not till after receising the first proofs of the preceding abstract of Schmeller's researches on the comparative phonology of the Bararian section of High German dialects, that I became fully aware of the necessity of devoting even more space to giving an account of Winkler's collections of Low German and Friesian dialects. Schmeller's researches shew the influence of precisely similar forces to those which have acted in producing the varieties of our own dialectal pronunciation, working on a sister lauguage. Winkler's researches shew how the pronunciation of the same language as our own varies over its native, extra-British area. Schmeller's researches present most important analogies, and thus explain seeming anomalics. Winkler's collections, by being spread over such a wide region, remove the anomalies at once, and shew them to be part of one organic system.

English is a Low German language, much altered in its present condition, both in sound, as we have had occasion to see, and construction, under the influence of well-known special circumstances which have reversed the usual rule ( $20, a$ ), and have made the emigrant language alter with far greater rapidity than the stay-athome. On the flat lands in the Netherlands and North Germauy the Low German language has, except in the single province of Holland, ceased to be a literary language. It has therefore been allowed to change organically, in its native air, instead of in the forcing-houses of literature. It is chiefly now a collection of peasant tongues, like our own dialects, with here and there some solitary exceptions, where the old citizens still cling to the old tongue they knew as children, or some poet, like our own Burns, gives it a more than local life. ${ }^{1}$ There has been no reason for codification and uniformation. The language of education is merely High German, Dutch, and French, though the clergy have occasionally found it necessary to speak to the peasant in the only language which goes to his heart. Pronunciation, rocabulary, and grammar differ almost from village to village.

Low German is therefore much older than its apparent date, much older than English, much older than the English dialects. As I have gone one by one through the surprising collection of examples which Winkler has been happy enough to find and print, I have had most strongly forced upon me the conriction that Low German is two or three centuries older than our own dialects, and that it therefore presents us with a resuscitation of the Early English which we have hitherto met with only in the dead shape of old manuscripts. It gives a new meaning and force to our old orthographies and our old manuseripts; it shews in sitū the dējecta membra which have been thrown piecemeal on our islands, and will, I think, allow ns to reconstruct our language after its true type.

[^30]It may be said that this is all well known; that our AngloSaxon and Old Saxon MSS. and our many Low German specimens have done all this already. But MSS. represent shades of dialectal forms very few and rery far between, doctored by literary men in the first instance, who, knowing Latin, and hence knowing a language grammatically taught, have endeavoured to force "improved" constructions on to their own language (we are still doing so), and, considering medieval Latin orthography another name for perfection, have endeavoured to give a regularity to the written forms of pronunciation which did not exist in reality. No blame is meant to attach to these efforts, which, had the language really fought its way to the literary stage, would have been most valuable, and, no doubt, have been most valuable, in paving the way for the dialect which ultimately prevailed. It is only for the history of language that such treatment of language is lamentable. For that, it poisons the stream at the source, and throws the observer and systematiser on false tracks. But further still, the MSS. we possess are but rarely original. They have been transcribed, and re-transcribed, and "edited" by early writers, to whom the rery conception of correct tradition was unknown, and who indeed wished to "adapt" them to general use. Excluding then the horrors perpetrated by more modern editors, which the most modern are learning to eschew, the consequence is that the best old writings were the most exposed to literary deformation. It is difficult frequently to discover amid the mass of change what was the meaning of the author:-it is almost impossible to determine what were the sounds he actually used or meant to represent. The manuscript record of language reminds us, then, of the geological record of life. It gapes with " missing links," and the very links it furnishes are so broken, unconnected, disguised, charred, silicated, distributed, that it requires immense ability and insight to piece them into a whole.

Such collections as Winkler's furnish the missing links, erect the fossil animals, and make them breathe and live. We have no longer to gucss how such a radical change as we forefeel on examining our museums could have occurred,-we see it occurring! And it is this feeling that has induced me to devote so much space to an account of Winkler's collections. Those who can read Dutch should study the original, and pursue it into its details. In the mean time I believe that even the following mutilated presentment of his work will prove one of the most essential parts of mine, by making my readers feel what must have been that Early English, to which we owe the texts that our Societies are now issuing, those English dialects which still prevail in a continually dwindling state, and finally the English language itself as it exists to-day.

Winkler's work presents many difficulties to an Englishman. In the first place, it contains 948 closely-printed pages of Dutch, a language which few Englishmen read with the necessary flueney. In the next place, the Parable of the Prodigal Son, which was selected as fullest of peasant life, is presented in versions written by very numerous contributors, and each in his own orthography, very
little, if at all modified by Winkler himself, and often insufficiently explained. These orthographies are, however, greatly more intelligible thau those used by Englishmen, as, for example, in No. 10 of this seetion, beeause the High German, Friesian, and Dutch orthographies are themselves much more phonetical, and hence form a much securer basis, to those that know them, thau our own. But, in the first place, the generality of Englishmen do not know them. Then their sounds are decidedly different in different parts of the countries, where German and Dutch are spoken as the languages of educated people. And, lastly, the sounds to be represented were frequently not to be found in these languages, and heuce signs for them had to be supplied conventionally, and of course different writers have fancied different orthographical expedients. Hence a direet comparison of the different dialects from the letters used in Winkler's book is not possible. It seemed to me therefore that I should be doing some service if I merely reduced the whole, albeit it but approximatively, to my own palaeotype. In working out this conception, I have, however, met with considerable difficulty, and I am fully aware how faulty many of my interpretations of these versions must be, especially in delicate distinctions of sound. But I trust that I come near enough for a reader who glances through the following extracts to arrive at general conclusions.

As regards High German, a long residence in Dresden, and considerable attention paid to the varieties of local pronunciations, have made me tolerably well acquainted with its sounds; but I have not resided and scarcely passed through the Low German districts. This oceasioned me great difficulties. I have not felt sure as to the sounds given in High German on the spot from which the writer came to the rowels $a(\mathrm{a}, a, \mathrm{ah}), e(e, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e})$, or $0(0,0, o)$; and as to the diphthongs ei (éi, ái, ə'i), and eu (ói, A'i, óy, áy, əh'y, œ'y). I have therefore, except when especially warned, contented myself with (a, e, o, éi, œ'y). I selected (éi) because the late Prof. Goldstücker of Königsberg objected to my calling ei (ái), which is the general Middle German sound ; and I selected ( $œ^{\prime} y$ ) beeause Rapp gives this or (əh'y) as the North-East German pronunciation of eu, and because, where eu was used, the sound (ói) appeared impossible; whereas even Donders would have said ( $\boldsymbol{z}^{\prime}$ ' $)$; see ( $1292, a^{\prime}$ ) and $(1101, b)$ for the Duteh and $(1117, c)$ for the German. The ö might be ( $\propto, ~ ə$ ), I have selected ( $\propto$ ). Thus my vowels are ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o}$, u, $\propto, \Sigma$, ) and (ə) for the unaccented $e$, unless specially warned that other sounds were meant, and then I have selected the others in the series on ( $1285, a b$ ) which seemed to be indicated by Winkler. I have treated the Dutch spelling in the same manner, so that Duteh $e u$ appears as (œœ), $u$ short as ( $\left(\right.$ ), $u i$ as ( ( ${ }^{\prime}$ i), etc. For particulars of Dutch vowels I was fortunate in having Mr. Sweet's trustworthy report given oll p. 1292. For Friesian I have had mainly to rely on Winkler. But I received some valuable vĩvā vōce hints from two West Friesian gentlemen born at Grouw (see specimen 87* below), and an East Friesian lady born at Emden (see specimen 37 below). The reality of the fractures, together with many points of interest
which I have detailed in the specimens cited, and in the notes appended to them, were thus made clear to me.

The consonants presented another difficulty. I have given $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{k}$, as written, and usel ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) for $t, d$, although the latter ought almost certainly to be (.t, d). It is a point of considerable interest in relation to English usage, which I have not yet been able to settle. My impression is that the dental (.t, , d) are original even in English, but this is scarcely more than an impression. The ( $\mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{t}}, \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ), see (1097, $a^{\prime} .1129, c$ ), I have not eren thought of discrininating. There were a few allusions to them, but not safe enough for me to deal with. The $g$ is a great difficulty. Finding that the Emden lady used (gh) or even (Gh), although the specimen was written on a High German basis, and hence had simple $g$ in all cases, I have used (gh) for $g$ throughout; but my West Friesian authorities more generally used simple (g) initially. This (gh) will be right for Dutch dialects no doubt, but may be erroneous initially for the North-East of Germany.

As to $b$, $d$, final, I have "followed copr," but no doubt the rules of Dutch, given at (1114, $b, c$ ), are carried out pretty generally. My Friesian authorities did not wholly agree in their practice, and I did not think it safe, therefore, to change anything.

The initial $s$ in German I have treated as ( $z$ ), and the initial $s c / h$ as (sh) in the German and (skh) in Duteh. I have felt doubt at times whether the German writer's sch did not also oceasionally mean (skh) in Low German. The Dutch $s j$ I have generally left indefinitely as (sj), the Polish somnd, intermediate between ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}$ ), and only rarely made it (sh) when this seemed certain. The $t j$ in Friesic I have made ( tj , tJ, ti-), the latter before a vowel. My Emden authority repudiated (tsh) in such places, but my West Friesian authorities were more distinetly in favour of (tsh), although (tsi-) still seemed to linger. Certainly (si-, ti-, tsi-), diphthongising with the following vowel, were older forms. The case is similar to our nation, nature. The final Brussels "sneeze" (see specimen 156), which Winkler writes $t j s j$, I have left as ( $\mathrm{tj} \mathrm{j} j$ ), which may be called ( t .sh) or ( $\mathrm{t} . \mathrm{shj}$ ), with very energetic (.shj).

The glottal $r$ ( $\mathbf{x}$ ) is not sufficiently marked in Winkler. All the final $r$ 's in the North of Germany are very doubtful. They are not the Italian lip-trilled ( r ), and at times fall into ( $\mathrm{r}_{0}$ ) perhaps, see $(1098, c)$. I have generally left them, but have sometimes written (Lr). There is also a peculiar $d$ on the North Coast of Germany, into which $r$ falls, and I am almost inclined to consider this as ( $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ), which is certainly not an $r$ in the usual sense of a trill, and which is ready to become ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{z}$ ) or a vowel. This is not marked by Winkler, and hence is left unnoticed.

The $w$ I have given as (bh), except where it is expressly stated to be "English $w$." In the Netherlands this will probably be right, and all my authorities used it in Friesian. The $v$ I have left (v), even in the specimens written on a High German basis; but my Emden authority said (' $v$ ), and told me that the sound lay "between" (f) and (v); and one of my West Friesian authorities
volnnteered the same remark. An initial (fv-) will be quite near enough, like the High German initial (sz-) and our final (-zs), see $(1104, c)$. The difference between $v, w$, was strongly marked by all three. See also Mr. Sweet's remarks (1292, $c^{\prime}$ ).

The $h$ I have left as simple ( $\boldsymbol{H}$ ). It is no doubt often ( $\mathrm{H} \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{Ih}$ ), see (1132, d), and was distinctly so spoken by my Friesiau authorities; but as it is also frequently omitted altogether, and also frequently misplaced, or regulanly used where no $h$ is written, I felt too much doubt to venture upon any but a conventional sign.

Some other peculiarities are noted as they arise in the specimens. The account of the pronunciation of Antwerp (specimen 160) and Ghent (specimen 168) prefixed to the specimens, and the complete transcription of the Parable in the West Friesian pronunciation (specimen $87^{*}$ ), will be of assistance.

As to the length of the vowels, I have often felt much uncertainty, especially in North Germany, but I have followed the rule of marking the rowel as short unless the writer clearly indicated that it was long. Perhaps I have been wrong in treating Dutch oe and ie as representing (uu, ii); Mr. Sweet and Land both say that these vowels are short in literary Dutch (that is, pure Hollandish), except before $r$, but this gives no way of expressing the long sound in the dialects. It did not seem to be a sufficient reason to make the vowel long in Low because it was long in High German. There are too many examples of exactly contrary usage in this respect, see the Bavarian usages on p. 1368, col. 2. In literary Dutch, as in English, length often determines quality, but not so dialectally, and we have Winkler talking of "imperfect vowels" (short in closed syllables) being made "perfect" or "half perfect" (long or medial in open syllables). In such cases of course the converse is also true, and quality gives the feeling of length, see ( $1271, b$ ).

These remarks are sufficient to shew the difficulties to be overcome in this reduction, and the amount of allowance that has consequently to be made by the reader for the necessarily imperfect transcription here presented. Enough however remains, I trust, to make the result very valuable to the student of comparative phonology, the basis of comparative etymology.

Winkler's work gives 186 numbered and some unnumbered versions of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, Luke xv. 11-32. The unnumbered ones are chiefly older forms from books, and there are also a few other book forms, and the two last numbered specimens are in a species of slang, very peculiar and interesting in other connections, but not in the present. Hence I have confined my attention to the first 184 numbered versions. It might be thought that the number could have been materially reduced without inconvenience. But many links of the chain would thus have been snapped, and the completeness with which Low German and Friesian will be represented in this book from the borders of Russia to the Land's End in England, and from Magdeburg in Germany to Caithness in Seotland, would thus have been defeated. It is the
very completeness of the riew, in which all these forms of speech are represented in one alphabet, thus rendering comparison casy and direct, that forms its great value to the student. And though the subject translated is not the same in England as abroad, yet there are practically only two subjects, Wiukler's Parable and my Comparative Specimen; for Prince L. L. Bonaparte's Songs of Solomon are given below in glossic, and not in palacotype. It would, of course, have been impossible to reproduce the whole Parable in palaeotype. Hence a selection of a few rerses and phrases has been made, the same for each as far as was practicable, which was not always the case, on account of the very free treatment of the subject by some of the translators. As indeed each verse is frequently treated very differently, I have thought it best to prefix in English the gencral character of each fraction of verse given, and when anything out of the way occurs, to annex the translation in the specimen itself. All such notes and additions are bracketed, so as not to interfere with the general palacotype. Each verse is numbered for the same reason. Sometimes a few additional words are given. As another basis of comparison, I prefix the literary High German and Dutch versions, as given in the usual editions used in churches, and I have added the pronunciation, as well as I could, -not distinguishing (. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) however. The Authorised English Version according to the original edition will be found above, p. 1178, and the present litcrary English pronunciation of it, as given by Mr. Mclville Bell and myself, occurs on p.1171. The older Wycliffite Version and its conjectural pronunciation are given on p. 740; the Anglosaxon Version and conjectural pronunciation on p. 534 ; the Modern Icelandic Tersion of Mr. Magnússon, with the pronunciation as gathered from his own lips, on p. 550; and the Gothic Version with conjectural pronunciation on p. 561. Hence the comparison can be carried backwards to the oldest records, and most divergent modern forms. It would of course have been adrisable to have the Danish and Swedish rersions, and especially the various Norwegian dialectal forms, to compare; but these I am not able to give.

The arrangement is geographical. The countries and provinces are numbered with Roman numerals, and distinguished by capital and small capital letters. Winkler's Dutch name is generally placed first, and then the German, English or French added, with a reference to the volume and page of his book. Where he has distinguished linguistic districts, as the Low German and Friesian, by separate sub-headings, these have also been introduced in small capitals. The place to which each version relates is numbered in the usual Arabic numerals, and printed in Italies, first as given by Winkler, and then, if necessary, in English or French, and its style as district, city, town, small country town, village, or hamlet, is added. As the names thus given are not very well known, and indeed were sometimes not to be found on maps, I have added the latitude and longitude from Keith Johnstone's Index Geographicus, which is gencrally correct enough for finding the place, although I have detected a few glaring errors occasionally. When the name
could not be found even there, I have added the name of some town or village which is mentioned by Winkler as adjacent, and which could be there found. The reader will therefore find no difficulty in referring each version to its proper locality. The reference to Winkler is added as before, and occasionally a few words of explanation are subjoined to the title of the specimen; but the necessity for brecity has caused me generally to omit such remarks, and always to abridge what I have given. They are generally on Winkler's authority, and substantially in his words.

These arrangements preclude the necessity of an index. The student fixing on any word in any verse can trace it through its various forms with great rapidity. The words selected had always especial reference to our English habits. Thus:-

The omission or retention of final ee or -en is shewn by: 11 had, 12 dealt, 15 the swine, to feed, heed or watch, 18 I have, 22 the best robe, shoes, his feet, 23 a or the fatted calf, 24 is found, 25 his eldest son, in the field, near the house, he heard, 29 with my friends. It will also be found in some versions, especially in Belgium, that -e has been added on, so that the use and disuse of the -e has become a mere matter of feeling, independently of any supposed origin.

The passage of 2 , not always original, (ii) or (ee) to an (ái) form is well shewn by: 11 two, 12 he, dealt, 15 swine, 22 his, $24 m y, 31 \mathrm{my}$, ever with me. It will be seen how local such changes are, and how impossible would be the hypothesis of an original (ái) sound of $i$ in English. The word 12 dealt was selected with especial reference to the forms in Havelok, suprà p. 473, and it thus appears that there is no occasion to assume Danish influence for such a form as to deyle, but that Low German forms fully suffice ; and subsequently, when we come to English dialects in the East of Yorkshire, we shall see how rooted such forms still are in England.

The changes of the (uu) and ( 00 ) are well shewn by the words: 11 sons, 22 shoes, feet, 24 dead, 25 son, house, 27 brother.

The changes of (a) may be traced in: 1 man, 18 fathor, 22 clothes, 23 calf, 25 came.

The changes of (e) in: 1 man in the form monsch, 11 dealt, Gothic $a i, 25$ field, 27 friends properly (i). For er falling into ar see 15 farrow.

In addition to this, the great number of fractures which occur, especially in the Friesian dialects, are very observable. An examination will, I think, fully justify the application of the laws (suprà p. 1307) which I had previously deduced from English and Bavarian dialects only. But this is a subject requiring extensive additional inquiries.

For the consonants the chief points of interest seem to be the following. The lost $r$ and interchange or loss of $h$ have been already referred to. But the approach of $d$ to (dh) in parts of North Friesian (at least accorling to Winkler, my East and West Friesian anthorities knew nothing of it, and it may be a Danism in North Friesian), and of $w$ to (w) in the same (according to Winkler again), marks the tendency more fully developed in English. It is ob-
serrable that we have English dialects (as in Kent) where the (dh) of pronouns sinks to (d). The loss of (dh) in most Low German dialects and its preservation in Anglosaxon, English, and Danish (the last only final and medial), or its transformation into (th), is a point which still requires investigation.

The loss of final - $d$, either by passing through ( $\mathrm{r}_{0}$ ) or ( I ) and then rocalising to ( $\partial$ ), or by passing through ( $J$ ) and then rocalising to (i), is remarkable. We have the old Latin and modern Italian loss of final $-d$ in quite another domain. But in Low German it presents peculiar features, and it is further complicated by its medial disappearance. Compare especially the various forms of 11 had, 15 feed or heed, 18 father, 22 clothes, 27 brother, and again after $l$, 25 field, and after $n, 24$ found, and 29 friends. The treatment of $n$ in such cases as (q) in many dialects is singular, as is also the frequent lengthening of the rowel preceding (q). The change of $(\mathrm{q})$ final into ( qk ) was perhaps more frequent than is marked. That $l$ in 23 calf should have been almost uniformly retained is, in consideration of the loss of $d$, and frequent loss of $l$ before $s$ in 25 as, very remarkable. But the word was frequently dissyllabic, and has some very strange forms.

The (gh) has already been referred to. On the locality whence our ancestors came, its existence is undoubted. Eren Holsteiners are accusel of saying (khuu tor Khot), aud we know that Berliners indulge in (Jnu tor Jot). The change of (gh) to ( J ) is not unfrequent in the word 18, 31, you. Combined with the elaborate Icelaudic treatment of $g$ (see p. 543), and the English reductions of Anglosaxon $g$, it renders the guttural character of this last letter $(512, d)$ nearly certain.

These hints are merely for the purpose of drawing attention to some salient points which have engaged our attention hitherto. The Low German seems almost to settle some of these disputed points, especially long $i$, ei and ai, and final $-e$. As to the open and close $e$ and $o$, their treatment has been remarkably different. They have generally been distinguished by the different courses which they have run ; but this has by no means always faroured the change of the close to (ii, uu), and the preservation of the open. On the contrary, the close tend to (éi, óu), and the open to (i', u'). This fracturing is very remarkable at Antwerp (specimen 160), and when completed by a juncturing, would often lead to precisely opposite results, making the open vowels thin, as (ii, uu), and the close rowels diphthongal, as (éi, óu), which result again in broad (ee, оо, э๐, A1). In the examples as written, when no actual change was made in orthography, I was obliged to take refuge in an indifferent ( $e, o$ ); but when any marks or directions justified me, I have distinguished ( $e, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{E}, \mathfrak{e}$ ) and ( $0,0,0$ ). Winkler himself comes from Leeuwarden in Friesland, where, however, a varicty of Low German, not Friesian, is spoken (specimen 91), so that I cannot feel certain that I have rightly understood these indications. Mr. Swect tells me that there is no (ee) in literary Dutch, but only (éei), the rules in grammars being purely orthographical. But Winkler continually inveighs against the prevalence of Hollandish
pronunciation. The general consideration of this very difficult subject of the double pronunciation of $e$ and $o$, especially in reference to Early English, on which Mr. Sweet has recently made some important studies, in his "History of English Sounds" (Trans. Phil. Soc. 1873-4, pp. 461-623), is reserved for Ch. XII. (suprà pp. 1318-21).

## Preliminary Versions.

i. English version corresponding to the general forms of Low German versions in the passages selected from Luke $x \mathrm{v}$.

11 a certain man (mensch, married man, churl, rich man, father) had two sons (lads, young ones, young men, uumarried men, servants). There was ouce (one time, one turn) a man (etc.) who had two sons (etc.).

12 and he (the father, the old man) divided (dealt) his (the) property (goods, estate) among them (both, each other). and he did it. and he gave each his part (portion, lot, effects). he gave them-people (usual polite Dutch hunlieden for them) their, (etc.). he gave the younger his mother's inheritance.

15 to feed (heed, watch, guard) swine (farrow). to be a swinedriver, swineherd.
18 father, I have sinned (done wrong, misbehaved, done sins, done evil, done unseemly) before (towards) you.

22 (haste and) bring (fetch, haul) forth immediately (quickly, nimbly, in an instant) the best (gladdest, smartest, Sunday's, Easter's) robe (pack of dress, chest-dress, store-clothes, breeches with silver seams) and put (draw) it on him,

## ii. Dutch Version.

## Ordinary Spelling.

11 een zeker mensch had twee zonen.

12 en hij deelde hun het goed.
15 om de zwijnen te weiden.
18 vader, ik heb gezondigd tegen (voor) u.

22 brengt hier roort het beste kleed, en doet het hem aan, en geeft eenen ring aan zijne hand, en schoenen aau de voeten.

23 het gemeste kalf.
24 want deze mijn zoon was dood, en is gevonden.

25 en zijn oudste zoon was in het veld, en als hij kwam, en het huis genaakte, hoorde hij het gezang en het gerei.

27 uw broeder.
29 op dat ik met mijne vrienden mogt vrolijk zijn.

31 kind, gij zijt altijd bij mij.
and give (do, put) a ring (finger-ring, gold-ring) on his hand (finger) and (new) shoes (with buckles, boots) on his feet (legs, used politely for feet).

23 the fatted (masted, fat) calf. the calf in the stall.

24 for this my son (son of mine, man, lad) was (as good as) dead, and he is found (caught) again.

25 but (meanwhile) the eldest son was in (on, upon) the field (acre, mark, for work, for some days, and knew nothing of it), and as he then (now) nearer to (close to, within a bowshot of) the house (farmyard) came, he heard music (singing) and dancing (playing).
27 your brother.
29 that I might (can, may) make merry (have a feast, jollification) with my friends (mates, comrades, companions). to treat my friends (etc.) to eat it (the kid) up with my friends (etc.).

31 my son (child, young one), thou (you) art (are) always (ever, all times, always all times) with me.
Lukas, Hoofdstuk 15.
Literary Pronunciation, as revised by Mr. Sweet, see pp. 1292 and 1114.
11 on zéeı $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{r}$ mens what thhéei zóou uən.

12 ən rhe'i déeilldə нhœn нәt khut.
15 om də zbhéi•nən to bhe'i dən.
18 'vaa'dər, e'k hhep khozo'ndikht téei'ghən ('voor) I.

22 breqkt hhiir voort nhad be-sta kléid on dut nhet nhem aan, on ghéeift on re ${ }^{1} q$ aan zou uhant, on skhu nən aan da 'vu'ton.

23 нhat khame-sta kalf.
24 bhand déeizzo mon zóoun bhar dóoud, ən els khovo•ndən.

25 on zon óu tsto zúrun bhaz $e^{1} \mathrm{n}$ nhat felt, on as uhe'i kbham, on нhat нhəh'ujs khonaa kta, nhoordə нhe'i uhat khəza'q on uhat khəre'i.
27 I brudar.
29 ob dat e${ }^{1} k$ met mon 'vrii'ndan mokht fróou lok séin.
$31 \mathrm{ke}^{\prime} \mathrm{nt}$, $\mathrm{khe}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ «E'ita-lte'id be'i me'i.

## iii. High German Tersion. Lucae, das 15 Capitel.

## Ordinary Spelling.

11 ein mensch batte zween sochne.
12 und er theilte ihnen das gut.
15 der saeue zu hucten.
18 vater, ich habe gesuendiget vor dir.

22 bringet das beste kleid herror, und thut ihn an, und gebet ihm einen fingerreif an scine hand, und schuhe an seine fuesze.

23 ein gemaestetes kalb.
24 denn dieser mein sohn war todt, und ist gefunden worden.

25 aber der aelteste sohn war auf dem felde, und als er nahe zum hause kam, hoerete er das gesaenge und den reigen.

27 dein bruder
29 dass ich mit meinen freunden froehlich waere.

31 mein sohn, du bist allezeit bei mir.

My usual Pronunciation.
11 án mensh на’ta tsbheen zəə nə.
12 und ar tái lta ii•n'n das guut.
15 deer zói•Jə tsu нуу't'n.
18 faa tar, ikjh наа bə gəzy"ndigjhat foor diir.

22 bri'qat das be sta kláid horfoo'r, undt tunt iin an, und gee bat iim ái'n'n fíqərrailf an zái•nə Handt, unt shuu•ө an zái no fyy'sə.

23 áin gəme'states kalbp.
24 den dii zor máin zoon bhaar toodt, und ist gəfu-ndon bho rd'n.

25 aa-bar dar ellasto zoon bhaar áuf dam fe-lda, und als ar naa $\cdot$ tsuum нáu'zə kaam, нәว'rətə eer das gəza'qə und dən rái gihən.

27 dáin bruu dar.
29 das $i \mathrm{kjh}$ mit mái $\cdot n ə n$ frGi•ndan frar likjh bhee ra.

31 máin zoon, duu bist ala-tsái t bái miir.

## Abstract of Winkler's Universal Low German and Friesian Dialecticon.

## I. RUSSIA. I. 1.

[The German inhabitants of Esthonia, Livonia and Curland were originally Low German; and though High German is now exclusively spoken, it has a strong Low German colouring.]

## II. GERMANY. I. 3.

[North of a line from Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne or Bonn by Göttingen and Wittenberg to Berlin, and thence to Koenigsberg, the language is Low German, except two little parts of Oldenburg and Schleswig, where Friesian prevails, and some parts of Pomerania and East and West Prussia, where Cassubian, Polish and Lithuanian are spoken. This part of the Low German language is divided into Low Saxon and Low Frankish, and is generically called plattdütsk, and plattdeutsch (pla $\cdot$ tdói ${ }^{\text {'tsh }}$ ).]

## III. East Prussia. I. 6.

1. Königsberg, town ( $54 n 42$, $20 e 30$ ). I. 8 .

11 en mœnsh нa də tsbhee zeens. 12 on néi deelta e no dat ghood. 15 dee sco'y ${ }^{\prime}$ to нœес da. 18 ras dar, œk нe ba ghazy-ndight rer dii. 22 bri'qət dat be'sto kleed нәгver, on doot em dat an, on ghecft em ee'nən fi'qərréif an zii nə mand, on shoo •ə an zii'nə fœœ'to. 23 cen
ghame'stet kalf. 24 den dis $\cdot$ r miin zeen bher doot, on héi ees ghafu'ndo bho rda. 25 aa bhar dee œ.lstar zern bher opp dem fæ厄ldə. on als нéi naa*ə tom hü'za keem ню'rta неі dat ghaze qə on dən réi.ghən. 27 .. diin broo dər. 29 dat œk med mii nən fri-ndən frœœ•likh bhee'rə. 31 miin zeen, duu best a latiit bi mii.

## IV. West Prussia. I. 12.

2. Dantzig, town (54 $n$ 22, 18e 39). I. 14.

11 daa bher maal ' $n$ man déi mad tbhéi zeens. 12 on héi dee-ld̀ə e -nə ziin gháud. 15 de shbhiin táu нее $\mathrm{da} .18 \mathrm{vaA} \cdot \mathrm{dar}$, ek нebh shbhaar zi ndikht veer dii. 22 hasld ju dat be'sta kleed on trekd-om dat an, on gheebht-om ee'n'n riqk an zii•nə mand on sháu up de feet. 23 ee'n ma'stkalbh. 24 den dis miin zeen bheer doo-dikh, on нéi es nuu bbe-derfu'qə. 25 aA $\cdot$ bhersht ziin $\mathrm{e} \cdot \mathrm{ldstar}$ zeen bher up det feld, on as нéi neeghor keem an-t huns das нeerd не́i si q.q ook da ntsə. 27 diin broo ${ }^{\circ}$ dor. 29 dat ek kun lo stikh ziiu ned mii•no frind. 31 miin zeEn, duu best e'marsh bi mii.

## V. Pomeranla. I. 20.

3. Grijpswoud, in German Greifswald, town (54n5, 13e21). I. 21.

11 en minsh haar tbhee zecens. [described umlaut of (AA), between (EE) and (еॄ区), opener than the first, duller than the second; it may be only (2h), it may be (xh); it is most probably one of the three (๔, əh, æh).] 12 un ие dee ldə ən dat ghoot. 15 de zbhiin too нœœ don. 18 va-dər, $i \mathrm{k}$ нef sy ndikht vœr dii. 22 briqt dat be-sta kleet her un doot am dat an, un ghert om ee nen fi.qarri.qk an zii'nə нant un shoo up zii•nə feoet. 23 en ma stka lf. 24 den dees min zeeen bhas doot, un is furnon bhor'n. $2 \overline{0}$ de œ'lstə zeGen ecevorst bhas up-'n feld un as нe dikht an-t нuus kam, ниərdə не dat si•qən un da•nsən. 27 diin broodər. 29 dat ik mit mii'nə fry'n'n lu'stikh bhiir. 31 miin zecen, duu byst y mər bi mii.
4. Rügen, island (54 $n$ 30, 12 \& 30). I. 25.

11 en minsh Her tbhee zœœ๓ns. 12 un не deelt en dat ghood. 15 de
 ik heb sy-ndight ver dii. 22 briqt dat be'sta kleed нer un trekt әm dat an, un ghebht om ee'nan fi'qorree'p an zii nə Hand un shat an zii nə fœot. 23 en u'tme'st kalf. 24 den di'sar min zœœи bhaas dood, un is fu ndan bho rdən. 25 œœ•bhər də œ•ldstə z.œœn bhass in 'n feld, un as не dikht an d't huus keem ну'rt нә dat zi'qəи un da ntsen. 27 diin broo ror. 29 dat ik mit mii'nə fry'n'n kyn frœe likh zin. 31 min zoœen, duu bist altiid bi mii.

## VI. Brandenburg. I. 28.

5. Neumark, district about Frankfurt on the Oder, town (52 $n$ 21, $14 e 32$ ). I. 29.

11 t-ha'da -n minsh tbhee zeegn. 12 un de ol dee Ita [spelled dhectte] dat ghúot. 15 de shbhiin нœœ' n . 18 vaA'r, ik heebh sy'night vœr dii. 22 sœekt dat be-sta kleed facer un trek-'t әm an, un stecekt om 'n riq an ziin нand, un ghecebht am shúo foer ziin been. 23 'n game'st't kabh. 24 den di'sər miin zeeen bhiir doot un hee is bhe dar fu'n'n. 25 aa•bhar də œ-lsa zeaen bheer up -t feld, un a•s'r nat huu'zo keem hyrt-'r dat ghəzi'qə un ghəda-ntsə. 27 diin brúo'r. 29 dat 'k met miin fryn frocerlikh ziin kyn. 31 miin zeecn, doo bis altiid bi mii.
VII. Safsen, in English Prussian Saxony. I. 33.
[About Magdeburg; the kingdom and dukedoms of Saxony are Upper Saxon.]
6. Altmark, district from Sälzuedel, town ( $52 n 51$, 11 e 9), to Stendal, town. ( $52 n 36,11 e 51$ ). I. 34.

11 een minsh hat tbhee zecen. 12 un de vaa dor gheef-t-am. 15 de sbhii'nə to nœœe.ghən. 18 vas dər, ik hef mi zoo shlekht badras ghan. 22 breqt det best kleed, un trekt-at-əm an, un ghef $\partial m$ ee'nən fi q.qrri'q an zii'nə наnd un shoo $\cdot$ au zii'nə vœoe tə. 23 cen gəmest kalf. 24 dys miin zeeen bhas dod, un is bher fu'ndən. 25 as da eecelst zeecn von-t feld rin kam un dat si qen un da•ntson haert. 27 ziin braa dor. 31 miin zeegn, duu bist a ltiid bi mii.
7. Meitzendorf, village, in environs of Magdeburg ( $52 \sim 9,11$ e 38). I. 37.

11 et bhas en minsba de натә tbhee zéínə. 12 un héi déilldə u ndər eer ziin als. 15 de zbhii'nə нœ'y'ən. 18 vaA dar, ik har zy nde daan vör dik. 22 haslt mi dat be'sta kleed von 'n bo'dan un trekt $\partial m$ dat an, un 'n riq dáut an zii'nən fi• $q \neq r$ un sháu•a an zii•na fæ'y't. 23 en fe'tet kalf. 24 den di'sa miin kint bhas dood un ik не'bə am nuu fu'nən. 25 derbhiilla bhas da grœ'tsta von da zœœ'nə op 'n feld. as de nan $\cdot a$ bi dat huus kam dun нœ'rtə нéi də muzii kə un dat ghəzi'q.. 27 diin bráu•dər. 29 dat ik mik ku'nda lu'stikh mad $\cdot \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{n}$ mit mii nə fryn. 31 miin kint, dáu bist a la tiid bi mik.
8. Hohen Dodeleben, village in environs of Magdeburg, see No. 7. I. 41.

11 et bbaar maAl en mensh, der на'rə tsbhee su'qənz. 12 un нéi déilta n'ndər zee zii nən noof. 15 də shbhii nə ta Hœ'y•ən. 18 vaA dər, ik не'bə sy'nə әdлa'n vor dik. 22 søe'ykt dat be'sta kleet for un trekt ət әm an un 'n riqk dáut an zii nə he'na un sháu'a an zii'nə fe'y'tə. 23 'n kalf dat əme'st is. 24 den di'sor mii•n zoo'nə bhaar doot, un héi is afu•n'n. 25 darbhiillo bhaAr də greetsta von da zœळ•nə op'n fe•lo, un als нéi di•khdə an-t nuus kaam dun nœerto нéi də muzii'ka uu dat ghoda•ntsə. 27 diin
bráu•dər. 29 dat ik mik na'rə ke•nən
 shap. 31 miin kint, duu bist a•lotiit bi mik abhe-st.

## YIII. Mecklenburg. I. 46.

## 9. New Brandenburg, town

 (. $33 n 32,13 e 15$ ). I. 47 .11 daar bhas maal eens en man, dee nhaar tbhee zeagns. 12 un da va'tor dee-ltə en dat fərmecerghən. 15 de shbhiin to $\boldsymbol{r} \nprec r e \cdot d ə n . ~ 18$ va'tar, ik nef mi forswnight ghee ghon dii. 22 briqt den a:lorbe-ston rok heer un trekt om den an, un stekt on nən riq an'n fi-qər un gheebht em shoo an zii'nə fææ't. 23 'n fe-təs kalf. 24 bhiil dis miin zeeen as dood bhas, un не is bher ar fu'nən. 25 de œelsta zeem eecebhar bhas up 'n feld, un as не nas to huus kam hy'rta не da mnzii'k un dat da ntsont. 27 diin broo ror. 29 dat ik mit mii'nə fry'n'n mi lusstigh no lon kun. 31 miín zeacen, duu byst albhegh bi mii.
10. Stevenhagen, town (53n41, $12 e 53$ ). I. 50.

11 dor bhas mal en man, déi mar tbhéi zeens. 12 un нéi déilla unə zéi dat farmef:ghan. 15 de zbhiin táu нø'yron. 18 vaa'ra, ik nebh zy-ndight vœr dii. 22 briqt dat be'sto kleed нera'n un trekt $\partial m$ dat an un ghebht em éi-nən fi•qərri'q an zii•na uand un sháu an zii nə fœ'yt. 23 en ma-stkalbh. 24 den dee za min zeen bhas dood, un is fu'nən bhoor'n. 25 də $œ \cdot l s t ə ~ z e e n ~ e \cdot b h ə r$ bhas up don fe l'n, un as héi nee.ghor an-t huus kam, нyrt méi dat zi•q̨an un da•ntsən. 27 diin bráu ro. 29 dat ik mit mii•nə fry'n'n frœer likh bhiir. 31 min zeen, duu byst táu Jee're ['every'] stun bi mii.

## IX. Holsten. I. 54.

11. Friederiehstadt, town on the Eider ( $54 n 23,9 e 4$ ). I. 56.

11 een minsh sar tbhee zocens. 12 un не dee-ldo zo dat ghuud. 15 de zbhiin to нyy'ən. 18 fa dar, ik нebh zy'ndight vör dii. 22 briqt dat be'sto kleed 1 әrfœ. r , un doot ot əm an, un gheebhd om on fi qarri $q$ an ziin nand, un shoo an ziin focot. 23 en ma'stkalv. 24 den di'so miin zoown bleer dood, un is fyn bhor'n. 25 aa bhor do $\propto \cdot l$ lsto zeœen bheer op dat feld, un as не neegh an-t ruus keem, ню'rdə не dat zi q.qə nn dat da'nzən. 27 diin broo dor. 29 dat ik mit miin frœn
frœœ li bheer. 31 miin zœœn, duu bis y-mər bi mii.
12. Dithmarsch, district about Meldorf, town ( $54 n 6,9 e 4$ ). I. 59.

11 en man sar tbhee zewens. 12 un de ol deel dat ghuat. 15 de zbhiin
 slekht badras ghan ghee ghon dii. 22 briqt de be'sta a notoogh un trekt am dən an, un stekt әm on riqk an'n fi'qər un gheert am shoo an f focet. 23 en mastkalf. 24 den min zeegn hiir bheer dot, un is bhe dor fun. $2 \overline{5} \mathrm{aa} \cdot \mathrm{bh}$ 元 də æelstə zocen bheer to feld un as ni neegh bi-t nuus keem, nœr не dat si $q$ 'n un dants'n. 27 diin broo ${ }^{\circ}$ dər. 29 dat ik mal mit miin fryn lustigh bheer. 31 min suq, duu byst a.ldaagh bi mii.

## X. Schleswig. I. 62.

## a. Low German in Schleswig.

## I. 63.

13. Angelen, district between the Schley river and Flensborg fiord ( $54 n 50,9$ e 35 ). I. 65.

11 en man har tbhee zeens. 12 un zoo dee $\operatorname{lar}$ da 00 la ziin ghood. 15 as swiondrii•var. 18 va tor, ik Hev groo.ta syn bagas'n rœr dii. 22 hall dat be'sta von miin klee-dər for ziin a•rmə liiv ['body'], go $\ln$ ว fi'qərri•qə fœor ziin HEn un nii shoo fær ziin frect. 23 en fe'ta kalv. 24 нee bher dood, un is werdar fu'non. 25 aa•bar da œelsta zeen bher op dat feld; un as me nuu op de bheegh naa huus in de neegh dat zi•qən un da•nzən to нюळ'ran kreegh. 27 din broo-dar. 29 um mi mit min fryn frœœelikh zin to las ${ }^{\prime}$ ton. 31 min zeen, duu bist a-ltiid bi mii.

## b. Friesian in Scileswig.

 I. 70 .[In these Friesian dialects the short $i$ is said by Winkler to be "nearly perfect," by which he apparently means that it is pure (i), and not ( $i, \mathrm{e}^{1}, e, \mathrm{e}$ ), or other Dutch sounds of short $i$. These dialcets seem also to have (dh), see note to specimen 14.]
14. Bökingharde variety of the Moringer dialect, which is spoken in a distriet containing Niebuill, town ( $54 \neq 34,8$ e 49). I. 78.

11 an mon uéi tbhéior saa'no. 12 an ne diild Jam at ghœed. 15 da sbhin to Jhळ rdarn [(Jœrdarn) simply ?]. 18 tee•ta, ik uebh me forsee night in dee.

22 bre'jq da be-stə kluu-dha shurt an tii-s наm œn; dóu нam au gho'lre'jq án’ər a tái-qər an skur áu•ər a le'jt. 23 an fat kun lebh. 2t aa-bhər de нәәә fon min bii•dhə zaa no bhas dyd, un as bhii dhor fy nən bhordən. "25 óu-rrs do allsta saau bhas to fe' $j \cdot h d$, an as or ta•ghda ['thought'] to-d нys kóum нird әr at síu qәи [(shu qәи) ! $]$ an do nsin. 27 dan bróudher. 29 dat ik ma min fry no froe'itik bhee'ze kyy. 31 man saan, dyy bast a ltet bái mee.
[(kluu•dha, bii•dhə, bhii•dhar, bróu•dhar) are spelled by Winkler with $t$, as kluthe, bithe, wither, brouther, and similarly lithan to suffer, ethe to eat, wethere wether, or kid, bleth blithe, tof re the content, German zufrieden, but lour only has a crossed $\mathfrak{\delta}$, which he says is "a soft $t h$ as in English, sounding almost as $s$." I have supposed that where he wrote th, he meaut the same thing, that is, (dh), or to a Dutchman almost (z). similarly in specimen 15.]
15. Karrharde, district about Stedesand town ( $54 n 44,8 e 56$ ). I. 81 .

11 en mon héi thhéiər see no. 12 an нi dild sem dat ghoed. 15 de sbhin to ghii'tzn. 18 tee'ta, ik нebh me forzee night sin dee. 22 briq dat best klee'dadhe shurt an tii-t наm ๗en ; duu наm en golriq au'ər a feqgor an skur áu'ər a fe'jt. '23 en fat knu•lebh. 24 áu'ər də не"ra fon min bii'dho see'nə bhas dud, an нee es bhiii dhor ty non bho rdan. 25 aa•bhə da a•lsta sen bhas to fe'joldha, an as ar targhda ['thought'] to-d нys kóum нird ar dat síu•qan [(shw-qan)?] an do nsin. 27 dan bróu dhar. 29 datik me min fry na froc'ilik bhee ze kyy. 31 man sen, dyy best a litid bái mee. [See note to specimen 14.]
16. Gosharder dialect about Hattstedt, Bredstedt and Husum, town ( $54 n 28,9$ e 3). I. 84.

11 diir bher en me nshe, dii нéi tbhen sens. 12 un di faa dor día•led dat ghoed u•nər ira $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ ən. 15 bhur sbhii'nhœ.rdər. 18 faa dər, ik нee se ondighet, for dii. 22 bri qet dat best klee dadhe shu'rta un tii-t наm $\alpha \mathrm{n}$, un stee ghat нam en gho hriq am a $\begin{gathered}\text { ti• }\end{gathered}$ qor un tii•et наm shyy'rə œn. 23 en faaht kúalf. 24 den man sen bhor dúad, un ik néi ham we dar fy'nən. 25 di alsta sen bher ta: fee-lo; es ni nyy te nys ghiiq niirt ni al fon fiirans [' all from far'] dat síu•qən [(shu•qən) :'] un dat spe•lin ['play']. 27 dan broo'dər. 29 dat
ik miin fry'na bebherti kyy. 31 man lii•bhə su•qə, dyy best $i \cdot m ə r$ bai mii.
17. Amrum, island (54 $u 38$, 8 e 20). I. 89.

11 an maan red táu socns. 12 an nii diald sha [this (sh) is doultful] at ghud. 15 a sbhin to нœ rdin. 18 atj ik наa za naght sin sóu. 22 briq nam a best khúadar an tjii-m-s nam un, an duu-m наm an fa'qərriq áu•or a нun an skur áu•ər a fet. 23 an feet kúa•lebh. 24 au'ər dasuii•r man soen bhéar dúad, an нii as bhe•dər fy-ndhon ['softened English $t h$, nearly like sh or $z h$ and $\mathfrak{X}$,' here written, "sounds generally as $d j$ or $d$ dj'] bhurdon. 25 man di eelist soen bhéar áu•ər fíal, an ys ni bhat nái•ər to-d hys kaam an hird at síoqen [(sho-qon) ?] an daa nsin. 27 dan brudar. 29 dat ik mii mee min fri'ndər нoe ghi kyd. 31 man sœu, dyy best altiid bi mii.
18. Sylt, island ( $54 n 54,8 e 21$ ). I. 94 .

11 en man hed táu dreeq.q. ['serrants,' lads]. 12 en de faa dhor dii lot Jam diit gud. 15 de sbhiin tee Jee'ton. 18 fà dhar! ik hat ze ndhikht tæœ erhən Juu. 22 briq dit beest klúadh jaArt, en tii әt нœm œn; әn dоce nœm әи fi•qәrriq (en sin нuudh, en skuur áur sin fet. 23 en fat kúalet. 24 for desjirrom min dreeq bhéar dúad, an es bhe dhər fy'ndhon uu dhən. 25 man do íalst dreeq bhir yp mark, on ys нii néi bii-t nys kaam Jert hii dit siú $\cdot q$ ən [(shu qəon) ?] ən daa nzin. 27 diin bro dhar. 29 dat ik mee miin fri•njər mii sens fry gha kydh. 31 miin dreeq, dyy best a thiid bi niii.

## 19. Helgoland, island (54n 11, 7 e 53). I. 99.

11 diar bhíar íaurmal 'n man, dee wiid táu so-qən. 12 en daa deelt de ool man sam det ghood. 15 de sbhiin to ho dorn. 18. faar! ik nas syn deen. 22 briqt də bast kloor dúat, on tiid нәш det un, oи dood nem 'n riq om siin fi$\cdot$ ¢ər, on skum $o \cdot$ vor siin du ton. 23 'u fat ka•lavken. 24 deu miin zon нat dúad bheen, au es bher fin bhurn. 25 oor"әr de oldst som lhiar un-t feld, ən as nee néi bii de shyys [sounds at present like (uiis), according to Winkler] kim hiard re det siogon on spricqon. 27 diiu brur. 29 dat ik met miin fren ferghä̈ght bhees kiid. 31 miin lif Joq, dee nas al•a tii don bi mii bheen.
XI. Territory of tite free cities of Luebeck, Hamberg and Bremen. I. 103.
20. Schlutup, village near Lübeck (53 $n$ 52, 10 e 51). I. 104. [To serve in place of a Lübeck specinen, which Winkler could not obtain.]

11 een minsh нar tbhee zons. 12 un ue dee lda dat ghood u'nər eer. 15 de sbhiin пœœ don. 18 vaA dor, ik hev zyn daan foer dii. 22 haslt mi dat be-sta kleed neruu't, un tee -t em an, un doot am een riy an zin mand un shoo an ziin foet. 23 een ma stkalf. 24 den bhat min zoen is bhas dood, un is bhe ollor fun. 25 da $\infty$ lsta zœn eqe:vars blas in -t feld, un as не nee-ghor an -t huus keem нœ⿱ не dat zi•qan un da'nsən. 27 din broo dər. 29 dat ik mii mit mii.nə fryu shul lu'stikh holon. 31 min zon, duu byst $a \cdot l$ tiiid bi mii.
21. Hamburg, town (53 $n 33$, 10 e 0). I 109.

11 een minsh наг tbhee zoœœns. 12 un нee dee lda dat ghood maq sym. 15 de sbhiin to nœœe dәn. 18 vas $\cdot$ lar, ik Hev zy-ndight vor dii. 22 briqt dat be sta kleed нeru't un trekt at $\boldsymbol{\text { om }}$ an, un ghevt om ee'uən fi-qərriq an zii'nə нand un shœœe an zii'nə focet. 23 cen ma'sted kalf. 24 den dy'sa miin zœeœ! bhas dood, un нее is bhe dor fun. 25 aA-bars ziin e-lsta zœœ๐ bhas up -n feld, un as не dat muus nœeж gliar koem daa нor.rda dat zi'qən un dat da'ntson. 27 diin broo dər. 29 up dat ik mit mii•nə fry-ndan lu-stigh bhee zan kyn. 31 miin zoœen, duu byst sy mors bi mii.
22. Bremen, town (53 $n 5$, 8 e 48). I. 117.

11 daar bhas en minsh de nar tbhee su'qəns. 12 un не dee-lada dat ghood u'nar jem. 15 dat he daar de slhii na нœœ don shol. 18 vaA dor, ik неbh zu night ghee ghan dii. 22 halt mi dat be sto kleed neruu't un teet id om an, un steEkt əm ee nən riq an zii no mand un trekt om shoo an. 23 on mee'sted kalbh. It den min zeeen [for (a see spee. 3, v. 11 ; here however it is said to be "a middle sound between oe and ae or $\ddot{z}$ and $\ddot{a}$ German, and that it sounds at Bremen very nearly as ae or $u$," that is (EE); this would favour the supposition that the sounds were nearer (ech) or (oh),] bhas
dood, un is num bhe der fu'nən. 25 AA'var do olsta zeecen bhas up dam fe•la, un as ни duun bi ниu'\% keem hœœerodo нee dat $x i$ 'qondə un da'ntsando. 27 diin broo dor. 29 dat ik meel ['once'] mit mü'non fru'ndon ferghnœœ'ght ziin shul. 31 miin kind, du byyst sy mar bi mii.
XII. Hanover, Brunswick, Schaumburg, Oldenburg. I. 122.
23. Deister, district (52 $n 16$, $9 e 28$ ). I. 124. [A remnant of the old Hanoverian speech of the Calemberg species.]

11 e mi'nshə на'rə tbhći su'qəns. 12 un нéi déi lla u'nər zéi dat arffdéil. 15 da sbhii'nə tə нœ'y'ən. 18 vaA $\cdot d ə r$, ek нe'və zy'nighat vor Jyk. 22 bri qat dat ghla destə kleed, un trek at œm an, un ghee•vet ən riq an zii•na нand un shau'ə an zii'n foe'y'to. 23 dat fet omas $k$ keta kalf. 24 den dy•sə miin zoon bhas doot, un нéi is əfurnən. 25 ziin œe-Ista zoon aa•bar bhas up en fe•la, un as héi in da nee'ghdə zii'nəs нии zas kam нœœ•та нéi spee'l ['playing'] un dans. 27 Јúa bráur. 29 dat ek mit mii nən fry'nan lu'stigh bhœocra. 31 miin léi bha kind, duu bist sy mor béi mek.
[Some additional words are given compared with German, on account of their vowel fractures.] 12 gúitərn gütern. 14 vartéərt verzehrt, lían leiden. 17 véa la wiele. 19 bhíart wird. 27 bhéar wieder. 29 zy'ə siehe. 32 gúər guter.
24. Oldendorf-Himmelpforten village (53 $n 35,9 e 13$ ). I. 137.

11 da bheer ins en minsh, de'j нан tbhe'j zœơиs. 12 un не'ј deei Jyn dat ghood. 15 de'j sbhin to нœœe-dan. 18 vas'r, ik hef zy ondight se'j ghans soo. 22 briqt dat be-sta tygh Her un trekt om dat an, un gheeft 2 m ən fi-q̧ariq an do raand un shoo an do fæot. 23 en me'jhst kalf. 24 den dy-se suq bhoer dood, un is bhe'dor fu'n'n [ 32 fy'n'n]. 25 bhii•ldors bhœr do œ•Ista zoœn op'u fe-l'n, un as ne'j bi нuus kom nœr нее'j dat zi qou un da ntsan. 27 son broo dor. 29 dit ik mit mii.nan fry'u'n farghuœe.ght bhocer. 31 min zoon, duu bys alttids bi mii.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 12 see sagte. 14 fyg fing. 16 nyms niemand. 19 me'jr
bhe＇jrt mehr werth． 20 see＇jgh sah， ym um． 26 e＇jnen einen，troegh frug． 29 zyy sieh，œœ－bh⿱一𫝀口tree＇on übertreten．

25．Altendorf，village（ $53 n 36$ ， $9 e 27$ ）．I． 140.

11 en vai－dar har thhee zegens． 12 un de vas dar deel jym dat ghood． 15 də sbhin to нœœе dən． 18 vaA $\cdot d$ dar， ik heebh u－nrekht daan ver dii． 22 briqt dat best kleed нәruu＇t un tee－t am an，un ghebhtem an fi qarriq an zin наad un shoo an zin foœet． 23 on mest＇t kalbh． 24 den min zeex bhœr dood，un is bhe－lar fu＇nd＇n． 25 AA•bher də œ－lsta zeegen bhœer op－＇m feld，un as не nœœe．ghar mat hus kœm нœr не dat zi•qen un da•nsən． 27 din broo dor． 29 dat ik mit mii＇n＇n fry＇nd＇n farghnœer ght bheen kun． 31 min zeegn，duu byst Jy＂mar bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 12 ghœee•dərn gütern． 13 ghyq ging，Hindœoer hindureh． 19 ik byn ich bin． 26 frogh frug． 29 duu bheest du weissest，eeq bha－ gaan übergangen． 32 ghoo das moo ds gutes muthes．

26．Rechtenfleth，village be－ tween Bremen and Bremerhaven （ $53 n 32,8 e 84$ ）．I．143．［The speech is Friso－Saxon．］

11 en minsk nar tbhee sœœ＂nən． 12 un неe dee－lda Jam dat ghood． 15 da sœœe gh әn to нœœ＂ən． 18 vaa dar，ik нef zu－ndight for dii． 22 briqt dat be＇sta tygh reer un trek－t am an，un ghevt om on fi－qərriq an ziin наnd un shoo an ziin foece＇to． 23 en mee st＇d kalf． 24 den di－sa，min zœœn bheer dod，un iz bhe＇dər fu＇ndan． 25 da o－1ste sween as var bher op－n feldda，un as не mas hus keem ниеerda нее dat zi－qən un dat da＇ntsan． 27 diin broo ər． 29 dat ik mit mii nə fru＇ndə lu＇stigh bher． 31 min scocn，du bist a－ltiid bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 12 zee sagte． 14 fug fing． 15 ниq hing． 16 buk banch， nums niemutud． 29 zyy sieh，aA＇var－ tree $ә$ 脕ertreten．
a．Low German in Oldenburg． I． 145.

27．Eckwarden，village be－ tween Jahde river（ $53 n 26,8$ e 12） and Weser river．I． 147.

11 ee mmal ins［＇once，＇Duteh eens， a repetition］bheer d＇r een man，de

наг thlee zegens． 12 un нее dee ldə er dat ghood． 15 da sbhii n＇n to hœœ＇ən． 16 vaA dar，ik hebl ghroo ta zyn daan ghee ghan dii． 22 haslt dat be＇sta kleed нer un teed am－t an un stekt om＇ul ruqk an＇n fi＇qər un shoo eeevar ziin foœet． 23 ＇n good fet kalbh． 24 den di sa miin zeern bheer dood，un is fu＇u＇n bhoo ran． $25 \mathrm{aA} \cdot$ bhar də œ．lstə zearn bheer up－t land，un as не dikht bi－t нuиs keem нœ．rdә не dat zi qən un spri qən． 27 diin broor． 29 dat ik mit miin fre $n$＇n for－ ghnoereght bheerzan kun． 31 miin zeeen，duu byst joo a•ltiid bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 14 ghuqk ging． 16 buuk baueh，nymms niemand． 17 zee sagte． 20 zeegh sah． 29 zyy sieh，noo nikh noeh nicht．

28．Jever，town and district （53 $n 35,7$ e 54）．I． 150.

11 t－bheer mal ins［＇once，Dutch eens］een minsk，dee наr tbhee zecens． 12 un do vaA＇dar dee dat． 15 ziin sbhiin to bhaa＇ran． 18 vaA dar，ik нef u－nrekht daan tee ghon dii． 22 briqt up də stee нer de be＇sta klee•dazii un trekt ym dee an un gheeft ym ee•nən riq ym ziin vi qar un gheeft ym shoo œœ＇bhər ziin fœert． 23 ＇n tet kalf． 24 den di san zeen bheer doot，un нее is bheer fu＇ndan． 25 da ölsta zeesn bheer up dən a＊kər，un as не keem un dikht bii－t huus bheer doo нœœ•ra нее ly＇stikh［＇merrily＇］zi＇qən un la rmon［＇making a noise＇］van do ze lshup［＇from the company，＇German gesellschaft］． 27 diin brœeゃər． 29 dat ik mit miin goo do fryn lystikh bhee zon kyn． 31 miin suq，duu byst y－mar bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 13 ＇t－dyy＇rda es dauerte，de bhii $\cdot d$ b bhelt die weite welt， 14 fuq fing． 15 gyqk ging． 24 ＇n ghroo to malltiit eine grosse mahlzeit． 26 froogh frug． 27 zee sagte．

29．Rastede，village（ $53 n 14$ ， 8 e 11）．I． 153.

11 en minsh har tbhce zœœns． 12 un не deelda er dat ghood． 15 da sbhiin to нœळ•วn． 18 vaA dər，ik nef zy－udo daan vor dii． 22 haalt dat be＇sta kleed ner un tee－t om an，un stekt－＇m＇n riq an－a mand，un shoo AA＇var ziin foeet． 23 ＇$n$ mest kalf． 24 den di＇sa miin zowen bheer doot， un is hhe dor fu＇non bha rn． 25 as bhor do olsto zocen bheer up－t feld，un as
ne dikht biitt huи keem nœ-rdo не dat zirqon un dat darntson. 27 diin broor. 29 dat ik mit miin fru'llo forghnoue ght bhee'zon kum. 31 miin zecen, duu byst altiid bi mii.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 13 нerdocer hindurch. 17 zee sagte. 26 to ballyy $z=$ zu bedeuten. [N.B. Final $r$ scarcely heard; $d, l$, soft $r$ confused, so that wedder sounds nearly weedde, wedda, werre, werra, welle, wella, in Winkler's spelling.]

## b. Friesian in Oldenburg.

## I. 155.

30. Sagelterland, district about Friesoythe, town ( $5331,7 c 51$ ). I. 155. [The inhabitants are genuine Friesians in descent, language, dress, and customs.]
11 deer bhas ins en mas'nska un dii Hii do tbhee'u sum 'n. 12 doo dee'lodo di oolddo mon it rim too un ras't нim bhet нim too-keem. 15 uum də sbhii'na to bhas'rjən. 18 bas ba, ['father'] ik нe'be se'ndighed лиш dii. 22 has lə mi ins [' once '] gháu ['quickly'] do be'stə kloo'dərə нiir, un luu k̀t rim do oon, nii mot ook on riq med, un dwoot ['do,' put] him dii oon ziin hoo'nda un reek him skoora oon-ə fee'to. 23 en ma'stad koolv. 24 den dis zuun fon mii bhas foor uus zoo ghood as dood, un nuu нe'bə bhi нim bhiir fun'nden. 25 too bhirlan bhas di oo-lsta sum op-t feeld too arrbéidjen [' work']; man doo hii-s éeunds [almost spoken s'evends, says Winkler, 'in the evening,' old Friesic iond] fon.t feeld e'tor ['after'] huus bhéi ['away'] giq наa'rada нii det shu'qən un det doonsson fon doo bherskuplayydo [' workpeople']. 27 diin broo'r. 29 det ik un mii'ne frị-nda ook ins ly"stigh bheerze kuudanj. 31 miin lioon bee_r d'n, [the ( (ır) scarcely heard] duu best $a$-ltiid bi mii.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 12 do bee' den beiden. 13 fras'md fremd, seeld geld, to líusen zuc leber. 14 lii'ds leiden, niks neen nichts kein, brood brodt. 15 dwoo thun, bhel bhiil nim ook in ziin tsonst nii'ma? wer will ihn auch in seinen dienst nehmen, buur bauer, ssa'nta sandte. 16 Jelrdan gern. 17 nii bito ghta zi'k er bedachte sieh, kwadd sagte [Euglish quoth], funll viele, stec rué durben, néeud nuii'de gehabt hatte. 18 blii'né bleiben, kweede sagen. 20 blookad
gebliekt. 21 ljyy do leute. 26 to bitsyy yodan zu bederiten. 29 siúklh sieh, nà'in lii'tsa buk keinen kleinen bock [English little, (li'tik) in other positions].
31. Wangeroog, or in North Fricsian Wrangeroog, island ( $53 n 47$, 7 e 52 ). I. 171.
11 dar is áinmoorl En shee'] ['ehurl,' used for married man] bhir ziin, dan Háid thbéin fe'ntor ['unmarried men']. 12 daa fardéilh dan oo'l mon siin sil ['money,' gelld] un ghood fonoorn Dutch van elkander, from each other, apart] u'nar dà béidh, un ro't oon dan suqst siin déil, saa fel as rim too káum. $1 \overline{5}$ uń da sbhiin too waariin. 18 bab! ['father,' (maam) 'mother'] ik neb sy nikht Jen dii. 22 uaar liit Jum mii ins ['once'] kittiigh ['quickly'] da best kloo'der hoo'd ['hither'] un tjoot rim da oon ; réi k kat rim uk En riq oon siin ráun un nii skoo'r ['new shoes'] oon sim foot. 23 en fat kalf. 24 umde't din fent fon mii sa ghood as doo'd bheer, un uun he'bat bbi nim bhii'dər fuu nən. $2 \overline{5}$ u'nerstu•skən bheer dan mon siin alst fent up-t felt blis siiu, to a rbéi dən. man daa ri á'rons ['in the evening'] naa huus ghiiq un thiklt bii ki miin bheer daa Heerd нii dáit shó qəan ren dáit do-nsən. 27 diin broo'r. 29 dáit ik un miin fryn uus ái'nmool fráu kuurnən. 31 miinn liúuaf bee rrn, duu best sa a ltiid bi mii.
[th is both (th) and (dh); (dh) is assigned in (béidh, kwidhhin, liidh, up stii dhi, siin lee•dhiigh), in German beide, spreehen, leiden, zur stelle, sein lebtag; in (thikht, thióo' nstan) German dicht, diensthnechten, it is not assigned, but it is stated that no rule can be given for the different use of (th) and (dh); (sh, tj, dj) are conjectures for $s j, t j,\{j$. Winkler in lis notes writes in v . 11, sjeel scheht, but an East Friesian lady would not hear of (sh, tsh) for ber $s j$, $t s j$, which are nearly (sji, tsj), see notes on specimen 87*; the plural in $u$ is remarkable, as (unursu, skyy.pu) German hëuser, schiffer. The whole dialect is remarkable.]

## XIII. East Friesland. I. 182.

[East Friesian consists at present of Low German, Friso-saxon (chiefly), and Old Friesian (as a trace). In Emden and near it Hollandish has also influenced the specch.]
32. Esens, town (53 $n$ 39, 7 e 36). I. 187.

11 'n minsk har tbhee zeens. 12 un не dee-ld her-t ghood. 15 de sbhiin to bhas rdon. 18 vas $\cdot$ dar, ik heb zy-ndight reer dii. 22 briqt-t best kleed her un doot hym-t an, un gheeft Hym 'n fi-qәrriq an ziin нand um shoo an ziiu fœeet. 23 'n me'st't kalf. 24 den dis miin zeen bheer dood, un is bheer furnd'n bhurd'n. 25 man da olst zeen bheer up-t land, un as не naa bii-t huus kweem нœе не dat ghazi•q ['singing'] un-d riioghdants ['country dance']: 27 diin broeer. 29 dat-'k mit miin fryend'n lystigh bheer. 31 miin zeen, duu bist altiid bi mii.
33. Nesse, village, near Norden, town ( $53 n 36,7 \in 12$ ). I. 190.

11 en minsk har tbhee zeeens. 13 un da vas-dar deeld heeer dat ghood. 15 to sbhiin bhas'ron. $18 \mathrm{vaA} \cdot \mathrm{d}$ ar, ik неb zy-nighd verer dii. 22 briqt dat best styk klee'ar нeer mo doo-t нym-t an, un gheeft нym 'n fi•qərriq an ziin Hand un shoo an ziin foo ton. 23 'n mesd [mest?] kalf. 24 den dis miin zeesn bheer dood, un is bhee ar fu'n'n. 25 man də o-lsta zecen bheer up-t feld, un as не dikht bii-t нuиs kbheem, нєєе не dat zi•q'n un spri•q'n. 27 diun brœeer. 29 dat ik mit miin fryn ly-stigh bheer. 31 miin zeern, dum best altiid bi mii.
34. Norden, town (53 n 36, 7 e 12). I. 192.

11 en minsk har thhee zecens. 12 un не vərdee lto dat ghood u'nər нœr. 15 de sbhiin to нœœ dən. 18 vas dər, ik hef zy"ndight ver dii. 22 haslt dat be-sta kleed нer un trekt num dat an, un gheeft hum 'n fíqərriq an ziin наnd un shoo an ziin foo'ton, 23 'n fet kalf. 24 den dis miin zeecen bhas dood, un is bheer fu-nən. $25 \mathrm{aA} \cdot$ bər dэ $o$.lsta zeam bhas up-t feld, un as не dikht bi ruus keem, нœœеr ne dat zi•qən un da•nzan. 27 diin brœor. 29 dat ik mit miin fryn ly-stigh bhee zan kun. 31 miin zecen, duu byst altiid bi mii.
35. Nordernei, island (53n43, 7 e 11). I. 195.

11 en minsk на' tbhái zons. 12 ии ню'i deel ню'a dat ghood. 15 dә sbhii non to ræœ๐•dən. 18 vaA $\cdot d a$, ik heb zyn daan we dii. 22 briqt dat móist ['most beautiful,' Dutch mooiste] kleed Héa un doot hum't an un gheeft sum 'n riq um ziin fi'ga un shoo.en
um ziin foo'tan. 23 'n fet kalf. 24 din disa miin zon bhas dood, un ıœ'i is bhéea•fu'nən. 25 aA -bherst de'i olst zyn bhas up-t feld, un as нœe'i náu bii-t nuus kbheem, пюе'а ню'i dat zi'qэn un spri•qən. 27 dii broéa. 29 dat ik mit miin fry•nən mu'nta bhéea. 31 miin zœen, dum byst a ltiid bi mii,
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 12 zái sagte, paat part, theil. 15 нœ'i varryy'a zyk er vermiethete sich. 17 ik vagan ich vergehe. 20 нœ'i mook zyk up er machte sich arf. ["The $r$ final is pronounced indistinetly or not at all; if maccented $\varepsilon$ precedes it, or sounds almost as $a$, vadar as vada. The $r$ is a stumblingblock for all Friesians and all Saxons that live near the coast." This final $r$ has therefore been omitted throughout this transcript.]
36. Borkum, island ( $53 n 44$, 6 e52). I. 201. [This dialect is nearer Groningenish than East Friesian.]

11 'n seekər mi•nska наr twéi zœœеns. 12 оп нә’i déi lda нœr-t ghóut. 15 de swii non towaaton. 18 vaa dar, ik нeb ze ndight tee ghən dii. 22 breqt-'t be-sta kléid heer on trekt нom-t an on gheeft нom 'n riq an ziin нand un skhóu an də fóu'tən. 23 'tme'sto kalf. 24 want miin zocoen was dood, on is ma'i weer forndan. 25 on riin olstə zœeen was op-t feld, on as na'i kbham, on-t нuus naa•dərdə,
 27 Jón bree'ir. 29 dat ik mii met miin fru ndən varmas $k \neq n$ kon. 31 kind, duu bist altuid bi mii.
["The letter $o$ in the words on, jongstc, honger, hom, etc., is very obscure, almost exactly like High German $u$ in und, hunger, etc.," and hence is here given as (o). "The $w$ is the usual Friesian and English w." I have hitherto used the German and Dutch (bh) eveu for Friesian; but in this example I have employed (w). Is Winkler right here? I shall venture to use (bh), except when specially directed not to do so. My Emden authority said (bh) distinctly, even in (kbham), not (kwam, kuam). See notes to specimen $87^{*}$.]
37. Emden, town (53 n 22, 7 e 12). I. 205.
[A lady, who is a native of Emden, kindly read over this version to me, and I give her pronunciation as well as I can remember, which is not very
distinctly，as there was not time to write anything from dictation．She found fault with some of the phrases， and supposed the writer to have been a German．I have followed her changes．］

11 dər bhas eens＇n minsk，do nar ［the（ $r$ ）effective，but almost（ $r_{0}$ ）］tbhee zœœпиs． 12 un də vaa＇r dee $\cdot$ lda do bóu＇dal［distinctly，not merely＇nearly＇ as Winkler says］u‘nər də bái $\cdot$ dən［dis－ tinctly（aii），not（éi）］． $1 \overline{5}$ tu sbhii－nə bhat＇ran． 18 raA＇r，ik bin＇n free＇sl＇k ghróu＇to zu•ndər tee＇ghən dii． 22 zee zu－lan up－a stee－t best pak klee＇r bre•qən un zə zu•lən zii zœœn dat a．ntre•kon，un нum óuk＇n go．l＇n riq an－d нand stee $\cdot k$ on un zu•lon нum shóo＇u an ziin fón＇ton dóun． 23 ＇n fet kalf． 24 umda＇t ziin suq tu da doo dan al нœrt наr，un bhas tu fi•ndən ko＊mən． 25 man də $0 \cdot 1$ sta zœœen bhas up－t feld bhest．as не nuu dikht bi нuиs kbham， doo vərna＇m нә al fon ferron－t zi $\cdot \mathrm{q}$ әn un spœœ๐ lan un da nsen， 27 sun brœœer． 29 dat ik mit mii•nə kla•ntən mii dər hhat bii varmaa $k$ kn kun． 31 miin suq， dun bist jas a•ltii－dan bi mii．

38．Leer，town（ $53 n 13,7 e 27$ ）． I．212． My Emden anthority said the writer of this was a native personally known to her，and the version good．］

11 dər bhas ins＇n man dee＇j наr tbhee＇j zœœns． 12 un de $0 \cdot l ə$ dee＇$j \cdot l d ə$ dat gheióud［（Eién）one tetraphthong， in rapid speaking sounds as（ióu）］ u•ndə нœœ๐． 15 də sbhii＇nə to нœ＇idən． 18 yaa dar，ik heb $m i$ an dii var－
 reer un trekt zə hum an，un steekt Hum ＇n ri．qə up də fi－qar un trekt hum sheión um də feión＇tən． 23 ＇n me＇st－ kalf． 24 den kikt，di＇sə miin zœœn bhas dood，un нee＇j is bheer fu＇nen． 25 man da 0 ．lsto zoeœn bhas up＇t feld， un as нee＇j di－khto bii－t huas kbham， нœळ•rda нéei dat zi－qən un spri•qən． 27 diin bréir． 29 dat ik mall mit miin fry＇nda ly＇stigh bhee＇zan kun． 31 miin le $e^{\prime} \mathrm{j} \cdot \mathrm{v}$ zocen，dun byst altiid bi mii．
［＂$\left(e e^{\prime} j\right)$ is a dull sound，like Dutch ee，approaehing Dutch $i j$ ，＂＂I have taken it as the London long $a$ ．＂The fracture äou（Eióu）in the Dutch words good，to， hoven，scho，foten，etc．，as pronounced in Leer，is difficult to render．In Dutch letters eiou would come nearest； the stress is on ou．In rapid speech the sound is nearly iou，jou（ión，sóu）． The öi（ $\propto$＇i）sound in höiden，bröir，is nearest to Dutch ui．＂］

## NIV．Westralen，in English Westrimalia．I． 216.

39．Wittlage，village，near Osnabruick，town（52n17，8e3）．I． 218. ［Transitional from Friso－Saxon to Low－Saxon．］

11 een minsk натa tbhee zæœ nons．
 varmyy ghan． 15 dat нее da sbhii－nə нœ•də． 18 vast，ik нe•bhə zy•udə dáun vor dii． 22 haA lat dat be•sta kléid un tee•at at em an，un ghii－－ bhat am en riq an de hand un shoo．a an zii＇nə fœeœ＇tə． 23 an me＇stot kalbh． 24 den dysa miin zœœ nə bhas dáut， un is bhiir fu•nən． 25 aa－bhər də œ．lsta zœœ＇nэ bhas up den féi lda，un as не néi ghər an dat muus kbham，нœ rdə не zi qәn un spel［＇play＇］． 27 diin broo－ar． 29 dat ik mii mit mii•ne
 31 miin zœœ•nə，duu bist $a \cdot l a$ tiit bi mii．

40．Vreden，town（52 $n$ ， 6 e 49）．I． 221.

11 daar bhas es＇$n$ man，dee had tbhee ze：n． 12 un не vardee ldə
 varkan ta нœœ＂ən． 18 vaa dar，ik нe•bə zy－nda daan te－ghan dii． 22 HaA＇lt＇t be＇sta kleed un trekt＇t am an，stekt＇u riq an ziinz нand un trekt em shoo an ziilnə rœœ＇tる． 23 ＇t me：stkalf． 24 den dy＇sa ze：na blas dood，un неe is bheer vu＇non． 25 doo bhas do æelsta zeeno in－t feld doo da noo kam un nad an－t huus bhas， Hee＇ordə hee da vioo＇l［＇violin＇］un－t da．nson． 27 diin broor． 29 dat ik met mii nə fræ•ndə met pleséar＇n maA• ltii•d kon hollon． 31 miin ze：ne， duu bist $a \cdot l$ tiid bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 13 rre＇amd firemd， vadee verthat，de＇ar durch． 14 var－ te＇ard verzehrt． 15 kœ＇tor［Eng．cotter］． 18 uu euch． 19 ik byn ich bin． 20 ghyqk ging，medlii digh mitleidig，em to mœe＇ita［Eng．him to meet］．［＂（zavna） is pronounced nearly as Dutch zunne，＂ variously with（ $\partial, \infty$, 2h），see（1292，$a^{\prime}$ ）． ＂（E＇y）in（verme＇y．ghan）is between Dutch vermuggen and vermuigen．＂］

41．Mïnster，town（51 n57， $7 e 37$ ）．I． 224.
11 ct bhas dormaa $\cdot$ l en man，de на＇da tbhee zece＇na． 12 un не vәr－ dec－lda ziin varmyy－ghan u＇udar de béi＇dan． 15 da sbhii＇иə to нœœodən．

18 vas $\cdot d ə r$ ，ik heve mi vərféilt ghii－ ghon dii． 22 nuu men，fiiks［＇quickly＇］ un has lat den a．lorbe＇stən rok un
 riqk an do ti•qər un ghi vat $\partial m$ shoo ${ }^{-}$ an də fœœ厄•tว． 23 on tet kals． 24 den dy＇sa miin zaan bhas dáud，un не is bhiiir fu＇nən bhad＇rən． 25 u＇ndarde＇sən kbham ziin œ．ldsta zaan fom fe•ldə naa huuzza，un as нe in də néi－ghdo bhas un da muzii＇k un dat da•ntsen heeerda． 27 diin braar． 29 dat ik mii met mii＇nən fre ndən he＇da lu＇stigh maA＇kən kœenou． 31 miin zaan，duu bli•vast y mər bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 12 too kymp zukiommt． 13 liee＇van leben． 14 faqk fing，to lii dən zu leiden． 15 bhúə nda roohnte， kúa•ton［Westphalian word，Eng．cots］． 16 giee＇rna gern． 17 bráut brodt， stiee＇rve［Eng．starve］． 21 bhiee＇rt werth． 22 liyy＇dan leuten． 23 las＇tat us iee＇tan［Eng．let us eat］，ghúadər guter． 26 ráip rief，fraAgh frag， badyy－dən bedeuten． 28 to frái•dən zufrieden． 29 nyms niemals．

42．Paderborn，town（51 $n 43$ ， $8 e 45)$ ．I． 229.

11 et bhas mol en man déi на d ə tbhéé zyy－no． 12 doo déi ${ }^{\text {l }}$ ldə déi vas＇r un ghaf－nə bhat－nə táukam． 15 de sbhii nə táu нœ＇y＇ən． 18 vas＇r，ik нe－bə zy＇ndighat vœœer dii． 22 haalt mi den be＇stan rok，un tre kət nə ee nə an，stee kət nə áuk ən riq an zii•nən fi－qər un ghii bot nə sháu＇ə andə fo＇y＇tə． 23 dat be－sto kalf． 24 den di so su＊qo bhas vœr mii deet，un нéi is noo bhiir fu＊nən． 25 un déi $0 \cdot 1$ stə su＇qə bhas tar tiit ghraa－də［＇at that time exactly＇］up en fe•lə，un as də uuu tor нéi $\cdot m$ ə kam un dat zi•qәn un spektaa $k$ kəln нœ•rdə． 27 diin bráu＇r． 29 dat ik mit mii•nən
 31 miin zuun，duu bist o．ltiit bi mii．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 12 ki nasdéil lindes theil，táukymt auhommt． 14 na ghree＇ta нu qərznee＇t eine grosse hungersnoth． 15 vərméi•ədə vermiethete． 16 kree＇－ ghon kriegen． 17 breed brodt，ghe－ láugh genug． 26 réip rief，froo ${ }^{\circ}$ də fragte． 30 нáurəntykh hurenzeug．

43．Sauerland，district about Soest，town（51 n 35， 8 e 7）．I． 233.

11 et bhas mol nə man，dái har tbheéi zyy－nə． 12 un da va＇tar shi khtədə ［‘shed，＇divided］ty＇skar［Dutch tusseh－ en，between］diee＇n be＇ghən［＇both，＇
（d）clanged to（gh）］． 15 da sbhéeina нáin［＇heed，＇（d）omitted］． 18 vaar， ik нe＇va zy＇na doon tii－ghan dik． 22 ghoot un haalt do stoe dighston ［＇stateliest＇］rok un tre＇kər nə ie＇mə an un ghiee＇t［＇give＇］mə nə riqk an do нand un sháu an zéeinə fái＇tə． 23 en fet kalf． 24 bhéeila $q \mathrm{qk}$［＇because＇］ нii méein zum bhas dáut，un нie＇t zik bhiir fu•nən． 25 níu bhas aA bher do œ＇lasta zuun bíu＇ton op＇m fe•lo，un as ө ran kam un noo－ghə béei нuá bhə ［German hofe，＇farmyard＇］bhas，doo Hort a muuzikantan［＇musicians］ spii lən un zi•qəu． 27 déein bráu’ər． 29 dar ik trakhtame＇nta fii＇ran［＇cele－ brate＇as a church feast］kon mit méei nər fræ•ndskop． 31 méein zuun， díu bist $y$－mər un a－Itéeit béei méei．
［Additional illustrations compared with German．］ 12 fyeer vor，táu kyy mat zukommt． 13 da bhéei $\cdot$ b belt die weite welt，dái sy＇qasto láit séei bhuál zéein der jüngste liess sich wohl sein． 14 in diee＇r ghii－ghend in dieser gegend，＇t feqk ie＇ma［ $i \mathrm{hm}$ dat．，（iee＇na）ihm acc．］ an kúuim to ghoon es fing ihm an kaum zu gehn． 15 buu rən bauer，kuáton ［cots］． 16 doo her нái zéei ghe＇rən da hätte er sehr gern，det léeif vul ghie＇ton den leib voll essen（？），van dem ríu＇tái＇gə von dem rauhzeuge，boo mee de sbhéei no met fáurrdə wo man die schweine mit fütterte． 17 daa ghlói－nər tagelöhner，ter he＇i mo in der heimath， ik goo hi dáut ieh gehe hier todt． 20 bho rtə bhe＇i•mái•digh wurde wehmü－ thig，láip＇me in de máite lief ihm entgegen［Eng．to meet him］，ky－sor no luïste ihn $[-r$ for $-d$ ，in weak im－ perfect］． 23 bhéei bhelt iee＇tan wir wollen essen． 24 vərluáren verloren． 25 biutan［Eng．dial．beouten，without； similarly（iut）out，（níu）now，（bíu） how $=$ wic ］． 26 ráip rief，froo－ghar fragte，luás los． 27 hee＇il un gezu•nd ［Eng．whole and sound］． 29 a mfədə antwortete，gebuá＇t gebot［（éei），（e）dis－ tincter than（i）；（iu，úi，uá，yE＇，ie＇，E＇i） have their stress rowel thus dis－ tinguished by Winkler］．

XV．Neder－Rinaland，in English Lower Rhine，province． I． 239 ．

44．Emmerik，in German，Em－ merich，town（ $51 n 51,6 e 15$ ）．I． 241.

11 ＇n mins inad thhee zoons． 12 en néi déi Ida zin vormœoceghan met on． 15 mm do verkəs to huи＇лəク． 18
vas dor, ik heb min varzə ndighd tee 'gho óu. 22 gháu ['Yuick'] breqd ©em 't be sta kleed, trekt ot om aam, on duud om 'n riq aan zin mand on shum aan zin ryyt. 23 't ghomi-sta kalf. 24 bhant dee'zo min zoon bhaas dood, en néi is bleer ghavo ndo. 25 zin o. Idsta zoon ee bhar bhas op-t veld, dun néi nón dikht béi nyys kbham, нoeerda néi do munziit $k$ oǹ don dans. 27 ón bruur. 29 dat ik met min vri ndə 'n rruceliks partéi kon no-ldə. 31 min zoon, ghéi bont a ltoos béi min.
[I have generally not distinguished Duteh eu, $u$, except as long and short ( $\infty, \infty$ ), considering it very uncertain whether in the specimens $(\alpha, 0)$ were consistently distinguished ; but as Mr. Sweet gives (32) for long Dutch eis (1292, $a^{\prime}$ ), and as Winkler here states that his $\ddot{o}$ is used for short Dutch eu, "which cannot be easily rendered in Dutch letters," I have used (0) for his $\ddot{o}$ in this example.]
45. Gelderen, in English Guelders, town ( $51 n 31,6$ e 19). I. 244.

11 ee ne vaa-dor had thhee zoom. 12 gheft mikh min ki-ndsdeel ['give me my child's-share'] en də vaa'dər déi dat. $15 \ldots \mathrm{~m}$ də ve rkas ta нуy Јon. 21 vaa-dar, ek heb geze ndighd tee-ghən áu. 22 za zo lon zii nan zoon néi kleer ghee von, œm ee nen riqk an do fi'qərs stee $k \boldsymbol{k}$ en œem néi shuun a.ntre-ko. 23 een vet kalf. it bhant ghéi mot bhe te ['for you must know'] dee'ze mii'no zon bhor ror mikh vərloo'ra, mar неn нet zikh bake'rt ['he has reformed, converted, himself'] on es náu bher min kind. bhơi zéi náu to zaa men bhoren, 25 kbhom den e.lsto zon van-t veld torygh әn нœ'rdə dat zi•qon on da'nsa. 27 din bryyr. 29 dat ek mikh met min rrii ndan ly.stigh maa ko kos. 31 min kind, duu blyfst $\propto \cdot m ə r$ bái mikh.
46. Meurs, in German Mörs, county, and town ( $51 \sim 27,6$ e 37). I. 247 .

11 ce no man uad tbhee zœœ口. 12 on me deelda cn net ghud. 15 cm da poo kən to Hyy•on. 18 faa dor, ik nob ze'yn ghadaa'n for dikh. 22 briqd dat be'sto kleed niir on trekdet $\propto m$ aan, on gheefd-œm ee'nə fi.qarri'q aan zin uand, on shuun aan zin fyyt. 23 . on ghomaa-st kalf. 24 den dee za mii'no zoon bhor dood, on as bhiir ghefo ndan. 25 maar do e.lsto zoon bhor op ot feld, on Es ne kort
be-t mus kbhoom, ню rdo не dat specectlon un da'nson. 29 dat ik ens mid min fru'yn froelik koos ziin. 31 mii'no zoon, dóu bœs cemar bee mikh ghabhee's.
47. Düsseldorp, in German Dusseldorf, town (51 n 13, 6 e 46). I. 250 .

11 nə man наd tsbhéi [High German form] so.qus. 12 doo de-ldo œ'no dar va'tar do e-rfshaft [ ' inheritance']. 15 do verkas tso нœo․d. 18 va'tor, ekh nan ghezo ndight gheeghan dekh. 22 breqt op dor stel at be-sto kleid, on trekt ot $\times m$ an, on dod-'m on reqk on do haqk ['hand'] on shoon an da fœces. 23 dat fe'ta kalf. $2 t$ den nee mi'no soq bhoor dood, on es bhidar ghəfo qa bhoo da. 25 zíno E.lsta Joq bhoor e-bher op dom feld; as hee noo ['now'] no muus koom, нœळ•dən-a speel on dants. 27 dii broo dor. 29 dat ekh met min froe'ndə о е'sә на ldo kuunt. 31 zykh ['see'] soq, duu bes i $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ ər béi mekh.
48. Keulen, in German Köln, in English and French Cologne, town (50n 56,6 e 59 ). I. 254.

11 nə va‘tar hat tsbhéi zœ๐. 12 un hee déi lton dat varmœecegha u'qэr zee. 15 dә re rkə tsə нœœ'də. 18 va'tor! ikh нan mikh rarzy'ndigh ghee'ghon deer. 22 flook ['quick'] breqk im dor besto rok crun's, trekt en im aan, doot ee na riq aan ziq Hand un shoon aan ziq foeos. 23 dat ma skalbh. 24 dan di'sa, mi'qo zon, bhor duut, un noo es hee bhi dar fu-qa bhoo da. 25 et bhor E'var si'qon ['his'] $\vartheta \cdot$ lsta zon om feld. als dee nuu náinu
 dii munzii'k un dat da•ntsə. 27 diin broo - dər. 29 dat ikh met mi q. q ['my'] fry'ndon ens a fe'stte'qkhon [diminutive from French festin] на•lda kunt. 31 zykh ['see '] Juq, doo bes i•mor béi meer.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 12 zeet sagte tsoo kyt zukommt. 13 bhys weise [' manner']. 15 boor bazer. 16 kéin ziil ghoof zo im keine secle gab sic ihm. 19 bheet werth. 20 feen fern. 27 kree-ghon kriegen.
49. Bonn, town (50n43, 7e5). 1. 258.

11 no man hat tsbhéi zon. 12 on e deet dat vamarergho uqo zo dee lo. 15 de sa'y tso нœódə. 18 va'tər,
ikh наm mikh razr-ndigh ghee'gho dikh. 22 ghashbhi•nd ['quickly'], breqt em -t be'sta kleed oruu's, doot ot em aan, on stekht ce•no riqk aan ziq Hand on shoon aan ziq feees. 23 't ghame'sta kalf. 24 deu di'sa mi'qa zon bhoor duat, on es blifda ghatu'qo
 zon op den feld. alts dee nuu koom on dem huиs noo bhoor, нyyt-ə dә muazii•k on don danz. 27 di•qo broo dər. 29 dat ikl met mi qe freend ee ne froc'y•domoo ltsik [German freudemaalzeit, 'joy-meal-time,' jollification] gәнá-la het. 31 mi-qə leerə zon, duu bes i•mər béi miir.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 12 zeet sagte. 14 нu'qərshmu't hungersnoth. 17 bruud brodt. 26 reef rief, knekhdə knechte. 29 ghəgho və gegeben.
50. Aken, in German Aachen, in French and English Aix-la-Chapelle, town ( $50 n 46,6 e 8$ ). I. 261.

11 e $\quad$ qə man нáu tsbhéi Jo•qsgherə. 12 ghef mikh mi'qe a ndeel. dər áu $\quad$ ['old man'] dogh dat. 15 da verkas ное'y•ә. 18 va•dər, ik нап be qkilikh [:German bengel-lich, 'like a rascal'] ghazoendight an dər hi mal. 22 breqt hem da béista montuurr, en trekt déi Hem an; gheft Hem nə req a'qən ['on the'] Haqk ['hand'] 'n slioq ['shoes'] a•qa pur'ta ['feet,' either an intcrchange of $f$ and $p$, or related to Dutch pooten, paws ; in Zeeland (puu'ton puretses) are hands, and in Leeuwarden, in children's language, both hands and feet are called (pun-ton,
 pare the English nursery term, ' little patches']. 23 en fet kánf. -- [This specimen contains only 23 verses.]
XVI. NEDERLAND, in English THE NETHERLANDS or kingdom of HOLLAND. I. 265.
[Winkler prefers calling the present kingdom of Holland, the North Netherlands, and the kingdom of Belgium, the South Netherlands. This is chiefly because the whole langnage is Low German. See No. XXVIII.]
XVII. Limburg, North-Netherlandish or Dutch portion. I. 269.
51. Maastricht, town (50n51, 5e42). I. 272.

11 daa bhass ins ne maan, dee nat tbhii zooens. 12 on duu verdéildon әr zə ghoot o.ndər z'n tbhii zocens. 15 œ巴 də verrkas tə нœœ'лә. 18 vaa•sər, ikh noeb tee gho œekh zbhumr ghazoe ndigh. 22 briqk se'fons [' fast,' a Flemish word] éin van da be-sto kléi ər on doot-ət-əm ann; ghef-əm no riqk ann z'n vi•qor en doot $m$ shœoen [sjøœen] aAn z'n vœoet. 23 't vetsta kaaf. 24 bhant dee zoon van mikh bhass dnut on nuu is ar bheer ghəvo.nd. 25 den a-bltstə zoon bhaar op-t feld, on blii or troek kaAm, on al kort ba'i z'n huus bhaar,
 œœ๕ broor. 29 œеm m'n trœen ins ['once'] ta trakteera ['treat']. 31 Hyyr ins нéi, Joq, dikh bis altiid ba'i mikh.
52. Sittard, town (51 $n 0$, 5 e 52). I. 277.

11 нә minsh heet tblee zooen. 12 on неe vordec ldəи 0 -qәт нœœи-t ghónt. 15 om da verrkas to œeoe'se ['heed,' (H) lost, (d) changed to (J)]. 18 raa dor, ikh hoeb ghozuu nigjh, tee $\cdot g h ə$ n mekh. 22 briq nuu rekht tun zi ghóu ['good,' W.] kleer on doogh zo-m anll, on gijheef œecm nə riqk aAn ziin enj en shuun asn də vœœet. 23 't vit káuf. 24 bhent miifone zoon bhasr doot, en zə нæ•bən-'m bheer ghefuu•nงə. 25 ən dən áau'tstə zoon dee bhaar in -t feldj, on bhii or ce'vesh [Dutch heemwarts, 'homewards'] koom, duu нюœ'rdən нее-t zi'qən en-t da'nsan. 27 dii bróur. 29 omdat ikh mit miin foeconj ookh ins do gjhek [Dutch gek, German geek, English gurk, here for 'mad fun'], koos af.gjhee're. 31 kindj, duu bis altiid bii mikh.-- [The Limburgers pronounce $g=(\mathrm{gh})$ in l)utch as (gjh) or nearly (J), and also palatalise $d, n$, and change $s t, s l, s n$, into (sht, shl, shn). Possibly the (dj) may become (dzh).]
53. Roermond, town (51 $n$ 12, $6 e 0$ ). I. 280.

11 éíno zee-kəra mins mad thhee zocen. 12 an ne déilda nюeor -t ghood. 15 om do verkas to nœœe'sə. 18 vaa dor, igh hoeb zoenj ghodas'n teeghon ogh. 22 brigt vaart 't be'sta kléid uii, on doot 't nom aan, on gheft éi'non riqk aan ziin nandj en skhoon aan do voeet. 23 't vet kalf. 24 bhant dee'zo mii'na zoon bhaas doot, on is trrock ghevo.nse. 25 on zii-non aldstan zoon bhas in-t veldj,
an bhii dee kbhaam an kort bii-t huus kbhaam, nœœerdз нее zank ['song'] on dans. 27 œeœer broor. 29 det igh mit miin rronj éins lor'stigh zeen kos. 31 kindj, duu bœs altiid bii migh.
54. Tenlo, town (51 $n 22$, 6 e 10). I. 283.

11 éine zee karə mins нad tbhee zœœе. 12 on нее déi 1 lda œœer-t ghood. 15 cm da ve‘rkəs ta нuu•ja. 18 vaador, ik neb zrent ghadaan tee'ghon ogh. 22 breq bedéin [bed for med, "with one,' ' at once'] -t be'sto kléid нéi, en doot t-œm aan, gheef éi-na riqk aan ziin нand, an skhoon aan də rœoct. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant deerza miin zoon bhaas dóoad, an is tore $k$ ghavo'ndə. 25 әn zii'nən a.ldste zoon bhas in -t veld, on bhie dee kbhaam on kort be'j-t wuus kbhaam, нy'a'rdə hee zaqk an dans. 29 det ik mit miin vri'ndən éins læstigh ziin kos. 31 kind, dikh bis a•ltiid be'j migh an't miint [' mine'] is-t tiint ['thine'].
55. Weert, town (51 $n$ 16, јe 43). I. 286.

11 daa bhaas no mins, dee háai tbhee zœœn. 12 әn hee skhe da -t in də нelft. 15 met da re•rkan. 18 vaa-dər, ikh нeb zœnj ghadaan vœer ๙kh. 22 láupjt on Haaljt voort 't skhoo-nstə kléid ən doogh t- œm aan, aukh éi nen riqk aan ziin vi'qər on skhoon aan ziin reeet. 23 a vet kaAf. 24 bhant mii-nə zoo'n, dee ghə zeetj, bhaas dóo at an bhe he-bon œm rrem [Dutch wederom, 'again'] ghavo'nıə. 25 mer ['but'] bhii-d'n aa'elsto [oa and $a o$ are here said to be between $o$ and $a$, but oa nearer $o$, and ao nearer $a$; I have hence transcribed them as (as, aa) respectively] zoo'n uut 't veljd нœ'i•rors [Duteh miswaarts, 'housewards,' honewards] kbhaam, on
 ghoskhe-1 ['sound'] van-t ghespoce-1 on -t da'nsə. 27 œœr broor. 29 œm ens met miin vrouj ta fié'ste. 31 miine zoo'n, umde't Jee bi mikh ghablii'ra zeetj es al miin ghood vœr dikh.
56. Stamproi, village ( $51 n$ 12, b) $e 43$ ). I. 290. [This is a specimen of the Kempenland, a large, mostly barren and heathy district in Duteh and Belgian Limburg, which, owing to isolation, has preserved many peculiar words and expressious.]

11 'no mins ha tbhii' zoœn. 12 an he vardéi ljdan zi ghood ooqar éin.
 [formerly (táai)] ikh neb zœnj ghe$\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{AA}} \cdot \mathrm{n}$ tee gho œkh. 22 láuptj mər ghóu ['quiekly'] də be•sta kléi•ər наа lon, on dootj za-n-œm aan : dootj $\propto \mathrm{m}$ éi nen riqk in zin vi•qər on shoon aan zin reoet. 23 Het vet kauf. 24 bhant do zoon dee ik me ndjan ['minded,' thought] det doo't bhas, es bhrom vo•njen. 25 zii•nen aa*dsta zoon bhaas op-t veldj, bhii dee néi varz ['homewards'] kbhaam, en doo-ndor bi-t huus kwaam, нœœ rdjon-t-ar det binnan -t spocel ghiq ['heard that within play was going on']. 27 œœr broor. 29 om ens met miin vrinj ke ramis ['Christmas,' feasting] to наа:әn ['hold']. 31 joq, duu best a-ltiid bi mikh.
[Additional illustrations compared with German.] 17 zeet sagt [but 12 zagt (zaght)]. 18 zegghen sagen. 19 mii mehr. 20 kompas.i [compassion, used also in Belgium and Zeeland, where medelijden is as unknown as kompassi is in northern Netherlands.]
XVIII. Noord-Brabant, in English Dutch Brabant. I. 294. [Closely related to No. XXX. 152 , etc.]

## 57. Helmond, town (51 $n 28$,

 5 e 39).11 ənə mens наа tbhéi.ə zœns. 12 an tuu hiil za va dar dái liq ['dealing,' dividing]. 15 dii makta n'm vee'rkashyy Jər. 18 va•dər, ' $k$ heb-'r neeva ghadaan [German ich habe neben gethan, I have done besidewhat is right, i.e. wrong, a euphemism] ti.ghə áu. 22 ghas guáu ['go quiekly'] in $\mathbf{H}$ óis on vat 't skhas nsto je'sko, det i -t aa•ndy ['on-do,' don] on skhuun an $z$ 'n vóu‘ət: en rái dee-m ənən riqk an z'n Hand. 23 't vat kalf. 24 bhant mone soqә нieser bhanr zoorœœ๐l as dáud on náu web k-'m bhoro m [Duteh wiederom, again]. 25 an zenən autsta so:qo bhas op-t veld, a as i tóis [(ta óis) to the house] kbhamp, нœ'i $\cdot$ ardan ii -t zi.qว әn-t da'usว. 27 áu bruu'jər. 29 dor ik m'n ka•moraA'tə op kos traktee ro. 31
 нiisorr, on was ik heb is e'vel ook t-áu.
58. Sambeek, village in the north-cast part of North Brabant, the
so－called Land of Kuik（51n37，5e58）． I． 299 ．

11 dar bhaas－as［＇was once，＇（as） ＇is the remains of eens］＇n mins dii tbhee zoons нал． 12 ən də vaa＇dər déi ld $\quad$ z＇n ghuud en ghaaf－＇m ziin porsii． 15 om da veerkas ta нœœ＇sən． 18 raa＇dэr，＇$k$－нәb bi•tər ghəzer－ndight toœe•ghən óu． 22 hasl－s gáu［＇quickly＇］ma zo＇ndaghsa［＇Sun－ day＇s＇］sper－lan yyt da kiis ən trek－＇m dii－s an，on dun－in e＇nən riqk an ziin нant on skhyyn en da vyyt． 23 ＇t ve＇ta kalf． 24 bhaant decerz mii＇nə zoon bhaas doot，an ii is bher ghavo nda． 25 en da áu＇sta zoon bhaas in－t veld， maar tuun i kort ba＇i hyys kwam， нœœ $\mathbf{r d a}$ ii－t ghazi $\cdot q$ on gheda＇ns． 27 uu bryyr． 29 om ris［＇once，＇ap－ parently daar－eens，German dareinst］ rroo lik met ma vry nda ta bhee＇za． 31 нœœ 㸚 Juq，Ja＇i bint an bla＇ift a－ltiid ba＇i mee．

59．Oorschot，hamlet（51 n30， 5 e 18）．I． 302.

11 ә nә mins на thhee zœœns． 12 ən da vaA•jar déi ldə mee œ•lıa［cou－ traction of Dutch hunlieden，＇them＇］ af． 15 op da verkas tə pa －sa［＇attend＇］． 18 raa＇jar，＇k hee－t＇r nee•va ghadan＇n ＇k biu ana sle khta mins． 22 laq ma də be－sta keel［Dutch kiel，a peculiar frock worn by the Brabanters］on last i＇m a＇nskii＇ta ən duu－m＇na riq aan zənə Hand ən̆ skuu＇nə san də vuu＇tə． 23 ＇t ghame＇sta kalf． 24 bhant deerza mənə zœœn bhatr doo＇d，an ii is avo＇nda． 25 әn d＇n ón•dstə zœœn bhasar œp d＇n a＊kar，on kwamp op нœ＇is asn，on нœœ＇rdд－ә iit［＇some－ what＇］af mun－t－ar sne－tarda［＇was jolly＇］． 27 Јョ bruu•ar． 29 œm tə vartee＇ra． 31 joqk，ghee za＇it $a \cdot l t a ' i d$ bái mee．

60．Rijsbergen，village（51n31， 4 e 41）．I． 306 ．

11 nə zeekrorə meens наал tbhee zœœ＂nan． 12 an do vaa＇dar ghaaf Asn a lobáai bhat－ər tuu kb bam． 15 daar mos i do rax－rkas нyу•лә． 18 vaA dər，＇$k$ неb misdaA．n tee＇ghə Jóu． 22 haal də be＇stə kleer on skhiit zə＇m aAn，ən duut－＇m ənə riq aAn zənэ vi＇qar on skhum an $\begin{gathered}\text {＇n vur＇ta．} 23\end{gathered}$ ＇t me＇stkalf． 24 bhant dee＇zə zœœn bhas dood，ən is bheer ghəvo nə． 25 den ón•dstan zœœе bhaar in－t veld，ən ten i op da bherf［＇wharf，＇barn，home－ stead］kbham，hoo rdən i dat－ər gha－ spœ•ld ən ghada＇nst bhiir． 27 sœ＇illian
［＝Dutch jelieder or jeluider for ulieder， your］bryyr． 29 om mee ma ka＇ma－ raA da deegh ta mas $\cdot \mathrm{ke} .31$ jo qa， gha＇i za＇it a•ltii ba＇i mee．

61．Dussen，village（51 $n 44$ ， 4 e 58）．I． 309.

11 ins bhas－tor is［＇once was there once＇］no miinskh dii－dar ghuud ba＇i kost，en dii ha tbhee zocens． 12 en i dee•ldo anan iilk zan paart． 15 om me verrekes to hyy＇Ja． 18 oo vaA＇dər！ ik ryyl in man наart da－k grəo＇ta zynd grdaan heb． 22 ghas da gha＇i is ［＇once＇］se•fes［＇quickly＇］－t be－sto stoek kleer yyt da kaast haA•lə ən da mo＇to－m aa＇nskhii to，ən stekt ənə moo＇sə［＇beautiful＇］riq aan zənə vi＇qər：briq dan medee＇na［＇at once ］ ＇n paar skhum mee，da［（a）quite short， ＂as if the consonant were to follow＂］ i nii le qar berovun＇ts huutt to ghaan． 23 da ghəmi•sta ka＇lef． 24 nóu－k mənə jo qa，dii－k vyr doo＇d niil，bheer lee－ vandigh［the Germans accentuate leben－ dig］ba＇i miir magh ziin $\partial$ dii－k bhee＇r ghavo uda hee． 25 s－bháilas da da a las ver＇ghəva ${ }^{\prime}$ la bhas，bhas dən au dsta zœon op－t veld．tuu i onderdera＇nd bheer nas ню＇is kbhaamp en di－khto ba＇i bago＇st ta ko＇ma，dokht i；bha－s da nóu vœr－n a larm da za in нœі max ka？ 27 z＇n jo＇qarə bryyr．， 29 daar－k mo kamoraats is［＇once＇］op traktee re kos． 31 zo＇i•də gha＇i dan nii al＇ta＇i ba＇i mee ？

## XIX．Gelderland．I．317．

62．Betuwe district，between Arnhem，town（ $51 n 58,5$ e 53），and Nijmegen，town（ $51 n 51,5$ e 52 ）．I． 318．［This may be taken as the type of the Frankish dialects in Gelderland］．

11 ＇n zee k ar mins нad tbhee zœems． 12 en нi déi－ldə нœœerly＊－t ghuud． 15 œm da verkes to нyy－Jan． 18 ＇k bin ＇n zo－ndaar wœor ón，vaa＇dor． 22 breqt＇t ka＇stantyygh［＇the chest－dress，＇ stored clothes］vo rtabhegh uiir，an trekt＇t hœin aAn on stekt－əm－on riq AAn də vi＇qər，әn duut－əm skhum aAn do vyyt． 23 ＇t ve＇to kalf． 24 bhent dee $\quad$ oo，miin zocon，bhas dood， ə ii is bheergharondan． 25 әn ziin ou＇dsta zoorn bhas iin－t veld，an turn i naar hyys ghunq，an dikht ba＇i da нo＇fstee kbhiim，tuun hoce＇rdo ii－t ghezi＇q on ghedarns， 27 uu bryyr． 29 da－k ook is［＇once＇］met miin kamaras dz kos rroo lik zin． 31 kiind， ghöi bint a－lto id ba＇i mo，
63. Tielervaard, district (51 n 53, 5 e 27). I. 322.

11 ' n mins 112 thhee zoons. 12 en i dee' lda noclii -t ghmud. 15 om do verkes to нyy"Jә. 18 raA'dor! ' $k$ hee kbhaad ['sin'] ghodaa'n tee ghon ón. 22 bre"qda gha'lii -t be sta klee'd on trekt-at-əm AAll, on ghecft-om -əuən riy Aan do maa'nd, on skhmun Aan do vuu'to. 23 't re'to kalf. 24 bliant dowez m'n zoon bhas dood, o ii is ghavo nda. 25 on z'n óu'dsta zoon bhas in-t veld, on tuu ii-t нœ' is kbham, ноœ•rdon ii-t si•qan an-t myyzii $k$. 27. uu bryy.or. 29 da-k mee m'n vri'ndo kon rroo-la'ik bhee za. 31 kəind! gha'i zo'it a lla'id ba'i ma'i.
64. Uddel, village (52 $n$ 16, $5 e 46$ ). I. 326 .

11 'n mins aarghons mad thhee jo'qons. 12 en rii doq-t ['did it'].
 ik reb-t nii zoo best oman $k t$ met juu. 22 kriigh-t be sta ghara'i. [or (gharéi'), elothing, in Friesland gereid is 'horseeloth'] yyt da ka•sta, on trekt-at-am an, on stcekt-ən ri*qa an z'n vi*qər en last Hi skhun'nen an dunn. 23 't ve•tsta ran da kyy•sJəs [or (kyy•shəs), 'calf,' oceurs in other Gelder dialects, but Winkler does not know its origin.] dii bhe bhe-toron ['water,' that is, fatteu, eat and drink]. 24 bhant di'sa miin zoonə bhas yyt də tiid, on is bheer ako mon. 25 tuu do olldsto soq bi nyys kbham, нœœ••da нii -n ghəzi•q an
 un broor. 29 dat ik-s met-'t so q. volk skhik ['jollification' same as Dutch gek? sol на•bən. 31 Јo qәn, ji bheer ra a latiid bi miin.
65. Nijkerk, town (52 $n 13$, $5 e 29$ ). I. 330.
11 'n man dii thhee so'qes rad. 12 on $z$ 'n was or dii dee bhat ii-m rreeogh an ghaf 'm z'n part. 15 om op də koceo.on to pa'son. 18 vaA $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$, k hee nii ghuud odan'n tee ghən suu. 22 breq zoo ghóu a sa kynt ['as fast as ye can'] də be'stə kleer Hiir an trekt'm dii an, on duut-om-our riq an $z^{\prime} n$ vi'qər ən trekt'm ook shuu'nən [or (siúu'uən)] an. 23 ' $t$ fii'nsta re to kalf. 24 bhant dee'za Joq ran mee bhas dood, on nuu неe bhee-m bheer tracerg aveendan. 25 de ourstz Joq, dii bhas op-t land, on tun dii bheer op ryys an ghoq, en kort bi nyys kbham, tuiu heererdo di zo zi'qan on da'nson. 27 z'n brecar.

29 da -k ook ees met da aara so qas plezii'r kost maa'kən. $31 \mathrm{~m}>\mathrm{Joq}$, si bi'uวn a•Itiit bii m'n.
66. Scherpenzeel, rillage ( $52 n 4$, $6 e 30$ ). I. 333.

11 dor bhas as 'lı man dii thlice zmuns had. 12 on daa ghaf $z^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ vas ${ }^{\circ}$ -
 18 vaa'dor, 'k Het zen ədaan en jun hee-k slckht bouaandeld. 22 ghast daA'dalik ['quiekly '] da be'sta kleer has lon on trekt-om dii an, on duu-n
 (síum)] an z'n ruu'to. 23 't əme'sto kalf. 24 bhant m'n zum bhas dood, әn ii is bheero'm aro'ndon. $2 \bar{j}$ on $z^{\prime}$ 'u ou'sta zuun bhas op-t laand, en tuu dii dikht ba'i нyys kblam, ноотdan ii za
 om-s yroolik to bhaə zon mit m'n kanmeraA $\cdot \mathrm{ds}$. 31 kiiud! Jii bint altoos ba'i mee.
67. Dinxperlo, village (51n52, 6 e 30 ). I. 337.
11 ii mes rad tbhee zens. 12 en də vaa•dar déillda œcer-t ghood. 15 œm də vaтkes to нry dan. 18 vaa dor, ik Heb azeendighd tee-ghən ón. 22 нaalt 't be'sta kleed an trekt-ət-om an, on dood-әm-әn ә riqk an də нand, әи skhuu'na an da ryy'ta. 23 't re'to kalf. 24 bhant diso miin zoenə bhas dood, an is aro\%nən. 25 an ziin oldstan joqə bhas op-t land, a too a kort bis [like a short Dutch $i$ followed by $j$, possibly (béish), which is on the way to (béi bu'i)] 't нyys kbham, нœœ' rd'子 нiJ-t zi'qэn ən-t dansen. 27 óu bry'r. 29 cm met miii-no rre nda vroceclik to bhaea ${ }^{2}$ zan. 31 kind, is bœont altiid bis mis.
68. Varsereld, village ( $51 n 57$, 6 e 28). I. 340.

11 iimes на da tbhee zons [a brighter (that is, open) somud than o in French sonnet]. 12 on Hii déilldan œeœr-t ghund. 15 œm do rarkens ta нyy'dən. 18 raa dar! ik Heb azoc ndighd tee ghlan ón. 22 kriigh da be-sta klee ra нiir on duut zə-m an, stek-on riqk an zii•nəu uand ən skhuu'ㄴo an də ryy' to. 23 't me'sta kalf. 24 bhant di'son mii nan zo'na bhas dood, a нii is bheer
 bhas op-t land, an as ee kort bis hyys
 da mson. 27 óu bry'r. 29 cm mis met mii no kamoras dis rree lik to maa-kən. 31 kiud, is boent altiid bis mis.
69. Winterswijk, small town (51 n58, 6 e 43). I. 342.

11 daar bhas ens-ənə man, dii tbhii zœns на d . 12 нә'i ghiqk daarœ'mə tot da dii liqə AA•vər. 15 cm do va rokens to Hyy"ən. 18 raa dor, ik не-ho mə'i bəze•ndighd taæ•ghən ón [(óu) is said to be obscure, that is, close]. 22 halt-ən nə'i pak klee'тә, әn tre•ket 'm dat an ; duut-əш-ənə go-ldən riqk an dən vi qəə ən skhuu'nə an də ry'tə. 23 't mosta kalf. 24 œmda't 'k mii•na ze'n’ bheer akrexe'ghan he-ba. 25 dəno.ldston ze.nakbham treerghon don AA'vond vau-t land, ən нююе rdә, duu ә nogh bhiid ran нuиs bhas, al dat ghaza qk әn ghaspyy'ə•l. 27 ziin brœœœ. 29 œт miin rre ndə to traktee ron. 31 miin kind, duu bœesto tokh a-ltiid ba'i ma'i.
70. Zutfen, town (52 n 8, $6 e 12$ ). I. 346.

11 еe•mand наd tbhee zoœns. 12 әп нее déi 1 ld ən œœ๐-t ghund. 15 œm də rarkens to нœœеәn. 18 raa dar, ik нeb ghazoendighd tee-ghən uu. 22 breqt нiir vocort 't be-sta kleed on doot-ət-əm an, on gheeft-әm-ən riq an ziin най әn skhoo nən an də voo'tən. 23 't ghome'sta kalf. 24 bhant di•son miin zoœn bhas dood, an is ghəro nden. 25 ən ziin ooldstan zœœen bhas in-t veld, on too ee kbbam on-t hyys naadərdən, нœœ r-rdən ee-t ghəza $q$ д әu-t ghada'ns. 27 un brœe๓. 29 dat ik met miin vríndon vroerlik mokh bheæ•zan. 31 kind, i bint a-ltiid bii miin.

## XX. Utrecht. I. 349.

71. Soest, village (52 $n 10$, 5 e 18). I. 350.

11 'n'zeekər mins had thhee zur'nə. 12 әп ні déilda nem 't ghuud. 15 om də varkes ta bhéi 'ən. $18 \mathrm{vai} \cdot d$ dar, ik нeb әzo'ndighd tooe.ghən sun. 22 briqt do be:sta kleera niiir an duu нюm dii ana, on gheeft 'n riq ann z'n нand on skum nə aAn də bee'nə. 23 't ghome'sta half. 24 bhant dee'ze miq zuun bhas dood, әn i is əvo qәə. 25 z'n óu'sta zuun blas in-t veld, on tun dii kbham on dikht ba'i -t нuns kbham, нoorda nii -t ghezi $\cdot q$ on-t ghoraa's ['noise']. 27 juu brœerer. 29 dat ik mit miq wi.ndon skik kon нe bon. 31 kiqd! ji bint a-ltiid bi mi ${ }^{i} q$ [" the (i) in (miq) is somewhat longer than the usual short (i), so that the word sounds between (miin) and
(miq) ; this pronunciation of (n) as (q) was usual in peasaut speech of the xyith and xyith centuries in other Dutch dialects, especially in Holland. It is still found in some dialects on the lower Rhine.'']
72. Utrecht, city (52n5, 5 e 7). I. 353. [Older dialect, formerly common in Utrecht, and still spoken by older small-tradesmen or workmen.]

11 dar bhas is 'n ma'n en dii ad thhee zoœns [(ma'n), "clear, or open short a rather lengthened, followed by obscure $\epsilon$," (ad), "the $h$ very weakly aspirated, and sometimes quite mute"]. 12 in i dilda za de bunl ['household stuff,' all property]. 15 om do rerakes to нœœ'Јə. 18 val $\cdot \boldsymbol{y}$, ik neb ghaze ndigh teee ghon Јóu. 22 briq də be-sta kleera, in trek zo-m an, in ghif-əm-ən riq an z'и на'nd in skhum'nə an z'n bee'nә. 24 bhant me zeœen bhas dand, in ii is blere'm ghavonda. 25 maar z'n oursta zocen blas op-t la'nd, in tun dii dikh ba'i-t нœes kbha'm tull has'tdon ii-t ghazáaq in da da'us. 27 лә bruar. $29 \mathrm{om} \mathrm{mi} \cdot \mathrm{m}$ (for (mit mo), that is, (met mo'i)] ka'maras's pret ['feast'] to mas'kə. 31 ло.qว, Јə'i bint altiid ba'i mee.
73. Utrecht city, I. 357. [See specimen 72. This is the dialect of the lowest classes heard in low pothouses in the back slums. As this does not follow the rerses enough to give parallels, and is curious, I transcribe the whole.]
dor bhas œes ['once'] 'n man, dii нad tbluce zyy'ns. do so*qsto zee ['said']: rai'dər, ghee mə m'n writonis ['inheritance,' Dutch erfenis], daa gháai ik də bha'i•ə [' wide'] bhearold in. z'n vas dar dee-t ['did it ']; in [' and'] 'n hortsi ['shorttime'] dar au snee'-t jokhi yy't ['the young one cut out,' went ofi']. masr ['but'] al nee'l ghón [' all whole quickly'] has al z'n lii•vo ghe-letsi ['money'] mas do masm ['after the mouth," swallowed up]. də ghroosta porsii.' [' portion '] на•da d. móoi•a messiis [' the pretty misses,' girls] 'm afghoroky ['stolen from him'], bhant dar ghoq dii réidyyr ['constantly'] nas tun. nón dee' dii z'n bes ['his best'] om ii-bhers ['somewhere '] an-t bherk to ko.mo, manr i kon nii lhers tore-kh ['to-right,' he could succeed
nowhere] omda't i dar zoo rotigh yy'tzagh ['because he looked so nasty']. no i liip lans do nyy'zo [' he ran along the houses'] to skhóoi'Jə om 'n suee'tsi bradd ['to beg for a slice of bread']. op-t la'qo les ['at last'] kbham dii ba'i ii-mand, dii -m nat-t land lii khaan ['let go '] om do verkes to Hyy'Jo. da fond i 'n ercll [Dutch erg, 'terrible'] lee' ['bad '] bherk in i dokh [' thought '] in z'u ai'ghes: bhaa bin ik tuu gheko mo? ik zee maar bheer maa m'in vaador tuu khaan, in vtaa gha oft ii mn as knekh bhil ghabry y' kə, bhant nóu léi-k tokh e remúui.
zoo ghezeed, zoo ghedas $n$; matr tuu z'n vas dor-m an zagh ko ma, liipt i ái-ghes nat-m tuu in нyy'lda van bla'i'skap. нә'i наd net ['exactly'] ' $n$ ka lof vet gheme $\cdot s$, in daa mos voort ghesla kh bho'rdo in dar bhiir 'n khroot fees [' a great feast] ghevii-rd ['celebrated,' German, gefeiert]. tuu do óu'sto zyy'n na нyy's khham, dokht i: bhat zou dar tokh to duun bhee za da za zoo 'n pret he-ba, in i vras'ghda-t an 'n kne-khi, on dii vartelda-nı 't hee' lo ghoval. tuu bhiird i erkh boos [' angry'], bhant i bhas 'n re 'khto lee'sas ['bad one'] z'n vas dor ghoq naA-m tuu, in zee: jo-khi, kom nóll tokh bi-no, blant sa bruur, dii bhekh khablhee's is [' who has been away'], is bheer torockh khoko mo! maAr i bhóu nii, in i zee: neen! ik eb a•lto'i khuud ['good,' well ] op-ghepa•s [' given heed'], in Јеe нeb nogh nóoit 'n géi tsi ['little goat'] voor mee ghasla kh, maAr voor hom, dii al z'n lee və nii khadœce kh нéit, in dii al Јə gheld ba'i do nuu'rən ghabro $k$ h нéit, voor zoo-n rotzagh makk i zoo 'n sta-ntsi ['for such a nasty fellow you make such state'].
XXI. Overisssel. I. 360.
74. Oldenzaal, city (52 $n$ 19, $6 e 56$ ). I. 362.

11 ee'ne нa'də tbhee zœns. 12 en нә dee'ldə eer 't ghood. 15 œm də zbhii ne to нœ๐夫*dən. 18 vaa dar, ik нe•bə zond odan'u tee ghan ón. 22 bre•qุat voort 't ki-stentyygh on trekt-әt-əm an, on doot-em-onən riqk an do mand ən skhoo an da vece'to. 23 't ghom-sta kalf. 24 bhant deeson miinən z.œ.nə bhas dood, on nee is bheer oro $\cdot n$ don. 25 on zii'nən o-lstan zoeno bhas in-t veld, an doo a luis 't nuus kbham, no'rd-ə-t zi qon on da•nson. 27 óu
brœœr. 29 œm met mii•nə rrœendə bhi lo to ne ben. 31 kind, dóu bis a-ltoos bis mis.
75. Deventer, town ( 52 n 15, 6 e9). I. 374.

11 zee $k$ kr ii mand had tbhee zœens. 12 әп неE déi ldə-t. 15 cm dд va'rkens op ta pa'son. 18 vaa dər, ik neb ozoc udighd vœœ๐ uu. 22 breq daa delik ['workfully,' immediately] -t be-sta Eleed Hiir on doo 'm dat an, on doo-om-ən riq an do hand on skhoo-non an də voo'tən. 23 't ghəme'stə kalf. 24 bhant dee ze joq bhas dood, on is avondən. 25 ən ziin $0 \cdot$ ldsto zœ nə bhas in-t veld, on tuun dee kbhamp on-t nyys nıa'dərdən, hœœe rdən-ee-t ghəza ${ }^{q}$ ən-t ghada-ns. 27 un brocer. 29 œm miin met miin rri•ndən -s. ['once'] vrœe lik to maa $k$ kn. 31 kind, i bint a.ltiid bii mii.
76. Zwolle, city (52n31, 6e5). I. 378 .

11 dar bhas-as an ['was once a'] man dii tbhii zœens $a \mathrm{~d}$ [" $(a)$ is the shortest possible long $a$, not the short $a$ of Dutch ladder, but nearly so"]. 12 en də v $a \cdot$ dər dee $\cdot$ ldə ziin ghuud in tbhii $\cdot$ ən. 15 om op do varrkes to pa•son. 18 v $a \cdot$ dər, k-eb-t eel, eel slekht $\partial \mathrm{m} a \cdot \mathrm{kt}$. 22 alt ['fetch '] 't be•sto kleed op on dnut-ət-om an, stefkt-on riqk an ziin vi $\cdot q$ ər on trekt-əm skuu-non an. 23 't vet'ə kalf. 24 bhant miin zæenə bhas dood, ən is əve ndou. 25 də нo ldsto [(н) prefixed, but (H) omitted in (ad, eel, Yys)] zo.no bhas nad by•ton, a tuu $\ddot{a}$ bheer dikht bäi -t yys kbham,
 uu brœœ๐. 29 œm-s-ən feesii•n to o.ldən met miin rri•ndan. 31 kind, i bint $a \cdot$ ltiid bis mis.
77. Zwartsluis, town (52n38, $6 e 12$ ). I. 381.

11 on ra*dər ad tbhii zœcens. 12 en нis diildə œœゃr -t ghuut. 15 œm də v $a \cdot$ rkeus to bhéi dou. IS va*dor, ik eb əz@endight tee ghən un. 22 breqt 't be'sta kleet iir, on duut 't $\propto m$ an en gheeft om 'n riqk an ziin aant ['hand'] on skhuu'nou an do vuu'ton. 23 't ghomestr kalf. . 24 bhant miin zœœ-ıə bhas doot, ən is bheer әvœnən. 25 an ziin olsto zoen ne blas in-t laant on as is di.ghta bis -t yys kbhamp ${ }_{2}$ œœ. rd is -t ghazaa• qk en -t ghoraA's. 27 uur bryyr. 29 da k iis mit miin vre ndon rrocrelik kon bheezon. 31 kiint, i bin altiid bis mis.

## XXII. Drenthe. I. 387.

78. Meppel, town (52 n 42, 6 e 11). I. 388.

11 nə zee•kər me`nsə нa•də tbhéi zœœns. 12 әn нә"i ghaf -t œm. 15 ən daar mœs hái op də zbbii•nən pa•sən. 18 veeæ'dar, ik he'bo ghroot kbhaad әdaa'n. 22 нжеæl ghóu 'n zœ'ndspak ['the Sunday's pack' of clothes] on last 'm dat $a$ 'ntre $k$ kn, on gheef 'm ook 'n riqk an ziilu vi q.qər en nə'i•ə skhoo nen. 23 't di•ksta kalf. 24 bhant ik mee'nda dat miin zœæ•nə dood bhas, an-k неb 'm bheer ave'ndan. 25 da o-ldstə zœœ•nə bhas or neet ba'i, on duu dee ba'i нyys kbham нœœетdә нә'i dat alarm. 27 ziin brœœer. 29 mm 's pleziir to mas kan met miin kamerAA•ts. 31 miin kiind! i kent a•ltiid ba'i ma'i blii'van.
79. Zuceelo, village (52 $n 48$, $6 e 44)$ I. 391.

11 daar bhas iis 'n merens on dii нa•də thhii zœeœns. 12 әn də vaA dor ghaaf нюm ziin part ran -t ghuo'd. 15 om ziin zbhii nən to Hyy’ən. 18 ' k нe•ba zœendighd vœo๓ da'i. 22 krii-ghə mə'i на'ndigh 't be-sta ghuu'd iis uut 't ka-mnet ['cabinet'], on trek 't Hœm an, әn gheef әm-ən riqk an ziin vi•qər әu skhun'n an də vuu'tən. 23 't ve'ta kalf. 24 bhant miin zceon bhas dood, ən is bheervernən. 25 ən ziin o-ldsta zooen bhas krek ['direct,' correctly, exactly] in-t veld, on duu нii dikht ba'i нuиs kbham, duu нøœ•rde нii dat zə zœ•qən ən daa $n$ stən. 27 diin brœœer. 29 da -k or met miin kla•ntən iis pléizii•r van kœn maa•kon. 31 dóu ziis Jas a-ltiid ba'i ma'i.
XXIII. Groningen. I. 396.
80. Sellingen, village ( $52 n 57$, 7 e 10). I. 400.

11 dər bhas éis 'n man on da'i наr tbhéi zœœеns. 12 әn нә déilldə нœœет -t ghóut tóu. 15 bhaar нә op də zbhii•nə pa'sən skol. 18 'k kan-t nikh vœœr suu verantbhoordən. 22 ghat нen on haslt 't a-lərbe-stə kléid, ən dóu нom dat an ; dóu нот ook-ən riq an da vi $q$ ər ən stee $\cdot$ vəls [' hoots'] an da vóu'ta [with these 'boots on the feet' compare the 'shoes on the leys,' frequent hereafter, see spec. 101]. 23 't a-lardi-kste kalf. 24 ' $k$ do-khda nikh a-nders as dat ho dood bhas, ən syyno'i leeft tokh nogh na'i is fot bhest an is tor nóu bhecr. 25 әn də o-lsto zwen
bhas op-t land, an dóu da'i bi нuиs kbham, нœœe rda нәі daar zi'qдл әп dan'san. 27 suun broe'ir [compare (rœ'ip) called (vre'igh) asked]. 29 dat 'k bhat pléizéirir mas kon kon. 31 miin soq! dón bist jad a ltiid bi mii.
81. Oldambt, district, containing Winschoten, town (53 $n 8,6$ e 57 ). I. 40 .

11 ar bhas is 'n vaA dor déi tbhéi zœœ๓! на. 12 әll ə'i móuk dat elk bii ziin part kbham. 15 om op ziin zbhii $\cdot$ nən ta pa'sən. 18 ' $k$ неb zæ.ndighd tee ghon suu. 22 ghast і неп on trekt hom 't na'i. $\boldsymbol{\text { ze }}$ ze ndaghspa $k$ an, an dóut i $\begin{gathered}\text { нom an riq an ziin vi quar, }\end{gathered}$ an skóu•nən an də vóu•tan. 23 't ve’ta kalf. 24 bhant di•se miin zeœen bhas steeryon, on is bheer to re-khta. 25 on ziin oldsta zœoen bhas op-t land, on daa déi nen ghoq an si'kom bii ['close by,' Winkler has not been able to trace this word] нuus bhas
 27 diin brœœ•ər. 29 da -k mii mit miin ka•məraA•tan éis blii•da kon maA ${ }^{\text {k }}$ n. 31 miin Joq, duu bist dagh on docer ['day and night,' local] bii mii.
[Winkler remarks that most writers in this and the Groningen dialect write $i j$ $=\left(\partial^{\prime}\right.$ i) in many words which have $i e=$ (ii) or $e e=(e e, e t)$ in Dutch. In his opinion the real sound is (éi), not (a'i), nor (ái). But where $e i$ is an original diphthong, as in $\epsilon$, meid, leiden = egg, maid, suffer, the sound approaches (ai), and cannot be considered anything else in some mouths. Such remarks are important in respect to the confusion of writing ei, ai, in Early English and modern High German. In these transcriptions my (éi, ái, a'i, c'i) indicate Winkler's ei, ui, $i j, u i$.
82. Woltersum, village ( $53 n 16$, $6 e 44$ ). I. 408.

11 dər bhas áis 'n mensk do'i nar tbha'i zœœns [(áis, da'i, tbha'i), specially identified with German ai and nearly Dutch $\left.{ }^{\prime} j^{\prime}\right] .12$ in nái dáildə нюoor -t ghóud. 15 om zhhii'nən tz bhai don. 18 vəo-ər, ik neb ze-ndighd vecer suи. 22 briqt gháu 't be'sta kláid, in dónt 't rom an; in gheeft 'n riq an ziin нand, in skhóu•nan om -ə vóu•tan. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant di\%a zocen van mii bhas dood, on is rornen. 25 in ziin 0 Ista z.een blas iin-t land, in dóu a dikht bi nuns kbham. noterrd re myyzii k in da'nson. 27 suun bree'ir [also (rroe'igh), but (ráip)]. 29 da -k
mit miin vre•ndon bliid [' blithe']
 a-ltiid bii mii.
83. Ulrum, village ( $53 n 22$, 6 e 19). I. 411.

11 daar bhas ráis ['once ']'n man dái tbhíi zocens naar. I2 on hái dái ldo -t ghótud ter skhən [: kh] пœœer. 15 om op zhhii non to paa:son. 18 raA dor, ik ueb mi boza•nighd an suu. 22 briqt 't ovonstaans ['at the hour,' at once] 't a lorbe'sto pak klai'ər неег, әn trekt 't ном an, әn dakht нош 'n riq om vi-qar, ou skóu'nəu om vóu'ton. 23 't verta kalf. 24 om di'ze miin zœœen bhas dood, on is bhee-rro nen. 25 in ziin olsto zea'n blas op-t laand, on dóu déi dikht bi huus kbham, нœœ'rdo нисœе zi•qәn on daa'nson. 27 sumn bree ir [but (vróugh) asked]. 29 om mit miin vre•ndon ráis plezái•or to $\mathrm{mas}^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{k}$ ən. 31 kiind, dóu bi•sə sa a•ltiid bii mii.
84. Groningen, city (53 $n 13$, $6 e 34)$. I. 415.

11 dər bhas ráis'n man déi tbhéi zœœ厄ns наd. 12 en dón déi ilde нә'ї нœœ๐ nut blat zo krii ghan ko nen. 15 om op da zbhii'nən ta pa'sən. 18 ras dar, ik heb zoe ndighd tee ghan Jóu. 22 breq hiir vort 't be-sta kléid on trek 't ноm an, on dón-əm-ən riq om ziin ri•qər, an skhóurnen an ziin róu'tan. 23 't re'ta kalf. 24 bhant dee'za zœœen ran ma'i bhas zoo ghóud as doord, on is bheervorndon. 25 da o-lsta zeoon blas syyst op-t veld a dóu ә dikht ba'i нууs kbham, нош rd н нә'i də mỵzii•k, ən нóu zə da nstən in də rii 'rhio ['rows', as in country dances]. 26 Jóu bre'ir' [also (rœ'ip), ( (rw'igh), called, asked]. 29 om met miin rre'ndon bhat plezéir [printed pelzeir, I have presumed by mistake for plezcir] to maA.kon. 31 jo•qa, dóu bist ja altiid ba'i mo'i. [Winkler remarks that $t, v, s$. $f$, are constantly pronounced by the small tradesmen as ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{v}$, ).]
85. Den IIam, village ( $53 n 17$, 6 e 27). I. 419.

11 zee kar man had tbhéi [not (ái), rather (éei)] zocens. 12 in нә'i vardéillda -t ghónd o•ndor nœewr. 15 om op do zbhii 'nən to pa'son. 18 vas•der, ik heb zoendighd tee gho sm. 22 breq niiir vot ['forth'] 't besto kléd, in trek nom dat an, in duu-om-on riq an ziin 1 нand, in skhóu'non an ziin vóu‘ton. 23 't ve'to kalf. 24 bhant di'so zoen
van mii bhas dood, o is bheer vo non. 2.5 masr doo.ldsta zoeen bhas op-t land, in dóu déi ba'i nyys kbham, нисо $r$ rd ər -t zi'qon in da hison. 27 sum bree'ir [(re'ip) called, (rróngh) asked]. 29 dat 'k ook ráis met miin wre ondon plezéi'r mastkon kon. 31 jơqว, duu bi'so altiid bi mii.
86. Grijpslierl, village ( $53 n 16$, $6 e 17$ ). I. 421

I1 'n man нad tbhii so qos. 12 an нэ'i parta нисет 't ghuud. 15 met da zbhifuon. 18 vasdor, ik neb varkee red nandeld tee•ghən sóu. 22 briqt miir daA delk da be•sta klee•rən, in last-əm dii $a \cdot n t r e \cdot k ə n$, in gheeft-ən riq om ziin vi-qor, in skuu uan an a vur'tan. 23 't be'sta kalf. 24 bhant miin jo'qə bhas dood, in nóu неb ' $k$ Him bhee rro nen. 25 in ziin o-ldste zecen bhas matr 't land, in dun dii bheero•m kbham, in dikht ba'i нyys bhas, ноо rdo нә'i -t alarm. 27 јои bruur [(riip) called, (rrungh) asked]. 29 om mit miin rre ndon-s plezii-r to mas $\cdot k o n$. 31 miin so-qe, sóu bin Јa altiid bə'i mə’i.
XXIV. Friestand. I. 424.
a. Friesian in Friesland. I. 428.
87. Friesland, province ( $53 n 5$, 5 e 50). I. 433. [The present Dialectus Communis of the whole province. The spelling of the original is that of G. Colmjon, and no explanation is given, being of course well known-in Friesland, as this dialect is spoken with tolerable uniformity over the whole province, except at IFindeloopen and in Schiermonnikoog. Hence my interpretation is more than usually doubtful. -The above was written before I had had the assistance of my two authorities from Grouw (see the next specimen), but I let it stand, together with the interpretation I had given, in order to shew the difficulties I hatd to contend with, and the degree of approximation to correctness which my reuderings may be supposed to furnish.]

11 dar wir [the (w) is very doubtful to me, but Winkler speaks of the Friesian $u$ being the same as the English, and hence I have used it for this dialectus communis, but I think (kli) more probable] i' $\quad$ nkéar an man (minska) end do'i ni' twaa so'mon. 12 and næ̋i di'ldə híaron 't ghuud. 15 um də
ba•rghən to wéi•dJən. 18 нéit ['father'], ik hab suu-ndigh tshiin [written tsjin, and may be (tsjin, tsiin, tsín), and the last is probable] su. 22 briq forth 't besto pak kléan Jhir [written hijir, possibly only (sir, siir) is said] and tsiéan rim də'i o'n, әnd són нim әn riq o'n sin нand, ond sko'n o'n do fo' ${ }^{\prime}$ ton. 23 't me'sta kéal. 24 whent
[written hwent] di'sa so'n fen mə'i wi'r déa, and nuu is werfun'n. 25 ənd sin a•ldsta so'u wi'r in-t fíeld, and doo da'i néi huns ghuq, and dhi khta [written thichte] bə'i нuиs ka'm, иéa’rdə нә'i -t sín*qən ənd -t duu‘nssən. 27 diin bro'r. 29 dat ik méi miin friúu•ndə ek ris froo-lik wee•sə mu*khtə. 31 be[rn, duu bist altid ba'i ma'i.

87*. Grouw, village (53 $n 6$, 5 e 50 ).
[Mention is made of this place in Winkler I. 428, but no specimen is given. I was fortunate enough to find two Londou merchants, who were born in this village, and who spoke the dialect as boys-Mr. de Fries, and Mr. ran de Meulen, and they were so kind as to read me the specimen 87 separately. I made notes of their pronunciation at the time, and wrote out the following attempt to reproduce it, on the next day. But on hearing the sounds for the first time, with only oue reading from each native, I have doubtless made many errors. The following will, however, probably give a sufficiently approximate represeutation of the real sounds. As this dialect is, of all others, most interesting in relation to our own country speech, I give the whole parahle at length. The fractures should be especially noticed, and at the same time the difficulty I felt occasionally in determining which vowel had the stress, as in English (p. 1312). The length of the vowels varied with the two authorities in several cases. The $v$ seems to be generally ('v), varying to ( f ) rather than (v), and I have written (f) throughout, following Winkler's spelling. The $w$ seems to be (bh), judging rather from the English of my authorities, who did not theu seem to use (w) at all. But a clear (uá), etc., occurs, so that there is a false appearance of (wa). The (sh, tsh, dzh) seemed to be clearly developed out of $s j, t j, d j$, although occasionally I seemed to hear (si-, ti-, di-). I did not attempt to distinguish (.t, d) from (t, d), but I believe the dental form is correct. Where I have written (I), I did not hear a trill, but only a vocal effect. Sometimes the $r$. was quite lost. There was no great certainty abont ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$ ), or about final ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ), and the two authorities did not always agree. The $g$ was certainly not
always (gh, ch), but was frequently simple (g).

I adopt Mr. de Fries's pronunciation and variations from the text of Winkler's specimen 87 , simply because I heard him read first; but I add any variants that I noticed in Mr. van de Meulen. F. and M. indicate my two authorities.

The following couplet I give as it was pronounced first by Mr. de Fries, and secondly by Mr. van de Meulen.

1. (bu-tar bréa on tsiiz
dər dat næt see'zə kæn is geen œprió kh tə Friiz.
2. bu'tər bréa ən grii'nə tshíis, dii dat næt sez.ə kan es næt on río khta Fríiis.)
I am inclined to consider the second most correct. This couplet reminded me of oue I had seen cited in Mr. C. C. Robinson's writings, as current in Halifax, Yorkshire.
3. (gúuid bre'd, bot•ər, on tshiiz,
iz gúuid El-ifeks ən gúucid Friiz), implying a felt resemblance between the pronunciations. Mr. C. C. Robinson says that (net) is used for not, and that the same fracture as (iii) is not unheard in Halifax, but is more characteristic of Leeds, where also (but•r) is used. Mr. Robinson lad no faith himself in the correctness of the assumption that Halifaxish is like Friesian ; but it occurred to me that it would be interesting to contrast this very singular Yorkshire dialect ( $23 b$ of the following classification), which has adopted the popular Friesiau test as a rhyme of its own, verse by verse, with the Grouw Friesian version, which I had already ohtained. Mr. Robinson was kind enough to attempt a version, which I here annex, with notes principally due to his observations. The resemblance is very far from close, but there is sufficient similarity of pronunciation to justify such a popular rhyme.

Here then follow, first, the Dialictus

Communis of Friesland in the orthography adopted by Winkler, with, on the opposite column, a verbal translation, the English words which differ from the Friesian being in Italics.

Then, also in parallel columns, come the Friesian pronunciation taken from Mr. de Fries, with the variants of Mr. van de Meulen, who agreed with the former generally, and the Halifax rendering
of the English verbal translation of the Friesian by Mr. C. C. Robinson, who strove to keep to that version for the sake of emparison, as far as was consistent with not straining the dialect.

Finally, I add notes, referring verse by verse to both the Friesian and Halifax versions, giving translations or other remarks which were suggested by the text.

## 1. Winkler's Friesian Orthography.

11 der wier ienkear en man (minske) end dy hie twa soannen.

12 de jungste fen dy twa sei tsjin sin heit: heit! jow my 't diel fen 't gûd dat my takumt. end by dielde hiarren 't gûd.

13 end net fulle dagen der nei (end en bitsje letter) forsamm'le de jungste soan alles by enoar, teach forth up reis nei en fìr land end brocht der al sîn gûd der thruch în en oerdwealsk libben.

14 do er alles der thruch brocht hie kaem der en greate krapte oan item (hungersnead) în dat selde land, end hy bigûn brekme to lyen.

15 end hy gung hinne end gung by ien fen de borgers fen dat land end dy stiûrde him up sîn land um de bargen to weidjen.

16 end hy woe wol jerne sîn bûk fol ite mei 't bargefoer; mar nimmen joech him dat.

17 do kaem er to himselm end hy sei : ho fulle fen mîn heite fulk habbe oerfloedig hiar brea end ik kum um fen hunger !

18 ik scil upstean end nei ûs heite 's gean end ik seil tsjin ûs heit sidze: heit! ik hab sûndige tsjin de himel end foar (tsjin) ju.

19 end nu bin ik net mear wirdig juw soan to hietten; meitsje my mar lîk as ien feu juw arbeiders.

20 end hy stoe up end gung nei sîn heit ta. end do er yette fîr fen him of wier, seach sîn heit hin al, end dy waerd mei inerlike barmhertigens

## 2. Verbal Translation.

11 there were one-turn a man [person], and that-one had two sons.

12 the youngest of those two said against [= towards, to] his father: father! give me the deal [=portion] of the good [=property] that to-me to-comes. and he dealt [ = divided] to-them the good.

13 and not many days there after (and a bit later) collected the youngest son all by one-another [ $=$ together] marched forth on journey after a far land and brought there all his good there through [brought there through $=$ spent] in an over-luxurious living.

14 then [ $=$ when] he all there through brought had, came there a great pinch on eating (hunger's-need) [=famine] in that self land, and he began breaking [ = want] to suffer.

15 and he ganged (=went) hence and ganged by one of the burghers of that land, and that-one steered [ $=$ sent $]$ him up his land for the farrow [=swine] to feed.
16 and he would well yearningly [= willingly] his belly full eat with the farrow-fodder [=pigs' food]; but no-one gave him that.

17 then came he to himself and be said: how many of my father's folk have over-flooding [ = superfluous] their bread and I come round [=die] of hunger.

18 I shall up-stand and after our father's go and I shall against our father say: father! I have sinned against the heaven and before (against) you.

19 and now be I not more worthy your son to be-hight [ = be called]; make me but like as one of your workmen.

20 and he stood up and ganged after his father to, and then [=while] he yet far of him off was, saw his father him all, and that-one became with
oandien; hy rûn up him ta, foel him um sîn hals end patte him.

21 end de soan sei tsjin him: heit! ik hab sûndige tsjin de himel end foar ju, end ik bin net langer wirdich juw soan to hietten.

22 de heit lîkwol sei tsjin sîn fulk : bring forth 't beste pak klean hjir end tsiean dy oan end jow him en ring oan sîn hand end skoen oan de foetten.

23 end bring 't meste keal end slacht it ; lit ûs ite end frolik wêse.

24 hwent disse soan fen my mier dea end nu is or wer libben wirden; hy wier forlern end nu is er werfûn. end hia bigûnen frolik to wirden.

25 end sin aldste soan wier in 't field en do dy nei hûs gung end thichte by hûs kaem, hearde hy 't simgen end 't dûnsjen.

26 end hy rôp ien fen $\sin$ heite feinten by him end frege him hwet dat to bitsiutten hie.

27 end dy sei tsjin hem : dîn broer is kumd end jimme heit heth 't meste keal slachte, um 't er him sûnd wer krige heth.

28 mar hy waerd nidich end wol net in 'e hûs gean: do gung sîn heit nei bûte end bea him der um.

29 hy likwol joech sîn heit to 'n andert: siuch! sa fulle jierren tsienje ik ju al end ik hab nea net hwat tsjin juw sin dien end dochs habbe ju my nimmer nin bokje jown, dat ik mei mîn friûnden ek'ris frolik wêse muchte.

30 mar nu disse soan fen ju kummen is, dy juw gûd mei hoeren der thruch brocht heth, nu habbe ju 't fetmeste keal for him slachte.

31 do sei de heit tsjin him: bern! du bist altid bij my end al hwet mines is, is dines ek.

32 me moast den frolik end blîd wêse ; hwent disse broer fon dy wier dea end hy is wer libben wirden; end hy wier forlern end nu is er werfûn.
inward compassion on-done [=attacked]; he ran him to, fell him round his neck and patted [ = caressed] him.

21 and the sou said against him: father! I have sinued against the heaven and before you, and I am not longer worthy your son to be-hight.

22 the father like-well said against his folk: bring forth the best pack clothes here, and tug [=draw, put] him them on, and give him a ring on his hand and shoon on the feet:

23 and bring the masted [=fatted] calf and slay it; let us eat and frolicsome [=merry] be.

24 because this son of me were dead and now is he again living become; he were lost and now is he again-found. and they began frolicsome to beeome.

25 and his oldest son were in the field and then [ = when] that-one after house ganged, and thick [=close] by honse came, heard he the singing and the dancing.

26 and he rooped [=called] one of his father men by him and asked him what that to mean had.

27 and that-one said against him: thy brother is come and your father hath the masted calf slain, for it [ $=$ because] he him sound again caught hath.

28 but he became angry and would not in the house go; then ganged his father after be-out and begged him there for.

29 he like-well gave his father to an answer: see! so many years scrve I you all, and I have never not what against you sin done, and though $[=$ yet] have you never none buck-ling [=kid] given, that I with my friends alsq once frolicsome be might.

30 but now this son of you come is, that your good with whores there through brought hath, now have you the fat-masted calf for him slain.

31 then said the father against him: bairn! thou be'st all-tide [=always] by me and all what mine is, is thine eke.

32 men [ = one, Fr. on, Old English $m c]$ must then frolicsome and blithe be; because this brother of thee were dead and he is again living become; and he were lost and now is he againfound.

## 3. Friesian Prontaciation.

11 dex bli'x i'n $k e^{\prime} r^{1}$ on man ${ }^{2}$ (me nska), æn dii ${ }^{3}$ nhío tuáa suánon [soo n'n $\mathrm{M}^{4}$ ].
 tshen ${ }^{4} \sin ^{5}$ нhæ'it ${ }^{6}$ : нhæ'it! Јóu mæ'i-t di'l fien-t gu'd ${ }^{7}$ dat me ${ }^{8}$ tak'œmt, ${ }^{9}$
 -t gu'd.

13 æn næt foc lo daa $\cdot \mathrm{gh}^{1}{ }^{1}$ dor nx'i ${ }^{2}$ (ænd æn b $i \cdot$ tsho ${ }^{3}$ [bii tshə $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ ] la'tor) foxsaa mla ${ }^{4}$ də Јœ'qstə suán [soon M] $a$-las bæ'i ənuda $\cdot x,{ }^{5}$ téakh ${ }^{6}$ fúrrt ${ }^{7}$ œp re'is næ'i on fii.l lan ${ }^{8}$ æn brokht ${ }^{9}$ deex al.0 ${ }^{\text {in }}$ gu'd troekh in on uux duelsk ${ }^{11}$ leb 2 n.

14 doo or $a$-las deex trokh brokht нhía, kaam ${ }^{1}$ dax en gréa ta kra'pta? $0^{\prime} n^{3}$ ii $\cdot \tan \left[\left(\right.\right.$ rhœ $\left.\left.\cdot q a r s n o^{\prime} \cdot d\right) M^{4}\right]$ in dat sæ.ldə lan, æn нhæ'i bego $q^{5}$ gəbre'k [bræ'k'm M6] to læ'i'ən. ${ }^{7}$

15 æn нhæ'i gœq нhe nə æn gœq bæ'i i'n fæn də buee'x gors [búə $x$ gərs M] fæn dat lan, æn dii shtuu'rdə [shtíu rdə M1'] нhem œp $\sin \mathrm{lan} œ \mathrm{~m}$ də bax'gən to bhæ'i dzh ən. ${ }^{3}$

16 æn нhæ'i bhuu bhol Je•rnə (graakt, graagh $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ ) sin buuk fol ii•to mæ'i-t bargefuu $x^{2}$; maax ${ }^{3}$ ne mən $^{\frac{1}{2}}$ suug [ Juukh $\mathrm{M}^{5}$ ] нhem dat.

17 doo kuám [kaam $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ ] or too нemsæ $\mathrm{l}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ænd нhæ'i sæ'i: нhoo fæe lo fæn min нhæ'i-tə fœlk нha•bə uu ffluudagh ${ }^{3}$ нhax [Jax M ${ }^{4}$ ] bréa, ${ }^{5}$ ænd ek kœm œm fæn нhœ*qər!

18 ek sel ${ }^{1}$ œp•ste'n ${ }^{2}$ ænd næ’i us ${ }^{3}$ whæ'i'ta ge'n ${ }^{2}$ æn ek sel tshen us нhæ'it see zo [se ${ }^{\prime} z \mathrm{M}^{4}$ ]: whe'it, ek нhab zæn deghə [sou daghə $\mathrm{M}^{5}$ ] tshen də нhem•al [rhee mal M6] æn fo'r (tshenㄱ) Jóu. ${ }^{8}$

19 ænd nóu ${ }^{1}$ ben ek net méax bhœugh [bhœerdagh; bhœeragh $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ ] Jóu suán [soon M] to Hhív'tan [Jæ•tan $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ ]; me'itsho me max lik as i'n fau Jóu a'rabæ'i ${ }^{\prime}$ dars ${ }^{4}$ [ax'bæ'i dars M].

20 ænd нhæ'i stiil $\propto p$ ænd geq uæ'i sin uhe'it taa, end doo or nokh ${ }^{2}$ fiiir fien rhem $\mathrm{AA}^{3}$ bhía, séakh sin rhe"it нhem al, zend dii hhaar [bha'rd $\mathrm{M}^{4}$ ] me'i e'nərli'ko bax'muherextaghons ${ }^{5}$ o'n'di'n ${ }^{5}$; uhæ'i ruun [rœn M ${ }^{6}$ ] ๙p whem taa, fuul ${ }^{\circ}$ nhem œu sin rhals æn pa'to ${ }^{8}$ нhem.

21 æn da suán [soon M] sx'i tshen нhem: нhæ'it ek uhab ze'ndegho [son'daghə M] tshen də nhəm•əl [uhee mel M] æu fo'r (tshen) Jóu.

22 do nhæ'it li•kbhol sæ'i tshen sin fœelk: breq ${ }^{1}$ fúrrt ${ }^{2}$ 't bersta pak kle'n

## 4. Mr. C. C. Robinson's Halifax Tersion.

11 dhi' wo wun tá $\mathrm{m}^{5}$ ว man, ət-od tuu ledz. ${ }^{6}$

12 th-Juq $\cdot \mathrm{s}^{12}$ on am sed tal-t feedho ${ }^{13}$ : fee dlıa! ${ }^{14}$ g $i$-mə-t shee'r-o-t stuf wat-s to $\mathrm{k} u \mathrm{~m}$ t $u$-mo. ${ }^{15}$ an- $i$ de'ld t -stuf tal-om.

13 on $\partial$ pis at-afrta ${ }^{12}$ th-Juq ${ }^{\text {is }}$ led samd ${ }^{13}$ ool up, on meed iz rua'd ${ }^{14}$ tul $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial d z}{ }^{15}$ ə faa lend, ${ }^{16}$ eu brout isenthroo ool at $i$ ed, ${ }^{17}$ wi óuəər-é $i^{18}$ lev'in. ${ }^{19}$

14 wen $i$-d dhii bróut isen throó ool, dho kum a gət ${ }^{8} u q \cdot \partial r^{9} i$-t lend, әn-i bigon' ta tlem. ${ }^{10}$

15 әn-i went agee tadz, ${ }^{3}$ ən-went bi-w $z$ un on-t te'nmen ${ }^{4}$ dh $i i^{\prime}$ a dhat lend, at ${ }^{5}$ sent $i m i$-t wúidz, ${ }^{6}$ fo-tə rúit t-pigz.

16 an $i$-d fee'x ә eet ${ }^{6} i z$ bel $\cdot i$ f $u$ l $\partial-\mathrm{t}$ pig.ment, ${ }^{\top}$ bod noo bdi gav im nóut.

17 wen $i$ kuum tol isee $\cdot 1,{ }^{6} i$ spek up, an sed : a mi fee dhar-fouk ee mon $\cdot i$ onәm ev ov'er-inef• a bre'd, ${ }^{7}$ ən oo-m kom to perish a $u q \cdot \partial$.

18 oo-shal up on $g u$ 'tal $\partial z$ fee dhər an oo-s ${ }^{9}$ see tal-im : fee dhar, oo-v seud ${ }^{10}$ әg $i i^{\prime} \cdot n$ ev'ən, on $\partial g i i^{\prime} \cdot n^{11}$ dhii.

19 an nee ${ }^{5}$ o am•at ${ }^{6}$ wath bin koold ${ }^{7}$ dhi sun; mek mə nob ats see'm $\partial z$ wun a dhi waa k zz. ${ }^{9}$

20 วn-i $u$ p on went tul $\cdot$ adz to-t ${ }^{9}$ fee dhar, on wol ${ }^{10} i$ wo.l sit a gúuid pis of $\partial \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{im},{ }^{11}$ iz fee dhar siid im, on bi$\mathrm{k} u \mathrm{~m} \cdot$ or $\cdot$ mee'strd at ee't $\mathrm{t}^{12}$ for- $i \mathrm{~m}$, әn-i ran tol-im, on fel atop--ə-iz nek, әn pat. $\mathrm{dd}^{13} \mathrm{im}$.

21 an-t sun sed tal-t fee dho: fee dhor oo-v send $\partial \mathrm{g} i i^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{n}$ ev•ən on $\partial \mathrm{g} i i^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{n}$ dhii, on o amet wath to bi koold dhi $\mathrm{s} u \mathrm{n}$ on $i$ laq $\cdot \boldsymbol{\text { . }}$.

22 on-t fee dho sed tal iz fóuk: breq өz-t best tluu'z $i i^{\prime},{ }^{6}$ әn don-əm on-im,
[klee'n M] Jex, æn tshe'n [tshokh M ${ }^{3}$ ] нhem dii o'n [oon M], en Jóu нhem on req o'n [oon M] $\sin$ Hhan, ${ }^{4}$ æе skúən o'n [oon M] da fós'ton [fuéton M5 ${ }^{5}$.

23 ænd breq-t mæ'stal ke'l ${ }^{2}$ æn slakht et : let us ii•ta æn froolek bhee'zo.

24 bhænt ${ }^{1}$ de'so suán [soon M] fren mæ'i bhi'r déa æ口 nóu es ar bheed le•bon bhœer•dən; нhe'i bli'r fərlææ•n ${ }^{2}$ æn nóu es ər bheer fo'n [bher•fóun M ${ }^{3}$ ]. æn Ja bago q.qn ${ }^{4}$ froo lek to bhœe. dan.

25 æn $\sin a \cdot$ lsta $^{2}$ suán [soon M] bhi'r en-t fíeld [fíelt $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ ] æen doo dii næ'i rhuus gæeq, æn tekh ta ${ }^{3}$ bæ'i нhuus kuám [kaam M] нhéar-də [Jer.də M] nhæ'i tsho qqə ${ }^{4}$ æn-t do'n'shən [doo nshən M5].

26 æпи нhæ'í roop i'n fæn sin нhæ'ite ${ }^{1}$ fæ'i'nton bæ'i nhem æn free'ghə нhem bhæt dat to bitsher $\tan ^{2}$ нhíя.

27 æn dii sæ'i tshen Hhem : din bruulu es kœmd ${ }^{1}$ æn Je'ma нhæ'it whæt ${ }^{2}$ 't mæ'sta kéal sla-khta, œm-t or нhem suund bheea krii ghə нhæt.

28 max нhæ'i bhaax nii dəkh ${ }^{1}$ æn bhuu ${ }^{2}$ næt in-t ${ }^{3}$ Hunz $^{4}$ ge'n ; doo geq sin Hhæ'it næ'i buu'tə æn béa нhem der œm. ${ }^{5}$

29 нhæंi li-kbhol snkh sin whæ'it ta-n $a \cdot$ ntúat ${ }^{1}$ [ $a \cdot$ ntbhat M[]: shíwekh [shokh M]! sa fæ'lə Je-rən tshæ'nJə ${ }^{2}$ ek Jón, æn ek Hhab néa næt bhat tshen Jón sen di'n, æn dokhs на bə Јóu me ne $-m \not r r$ nən bo'kJə Jóun, dat ek mæ'i min fræ*nən ${ }^{3} æ \mathrm{k}$-ras ${ }^{4}$ froo lek bheerzo moekhto.

30 max nóu de sa suan [soon M] fæn sóu kæ•mən es, dii Jóu gúəd [guæ’d $M^{1}$ ] mæ'i hluuvern [wœ.m $M^{2}$ ] dex troekh brokht нhæt, nóu на•ba Jóu-t fæt'mæs'to kéal fox нhem sla khto.

31 doo sæ'i də нhæ'it tshen нhem: ben [bæn M1] ! dóu best $a$ - Itid bee-mo [bæ'í mæ'i $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ ], æn al bhæt mii'nes es, es dii-nəs æk.

32 me mo'st ${ }^{1}$ dæn froo lek ænd bliid bhee'zə; bhæent de'sə ${ }^{2}$ brun. fæn dæ'i bhi'r déa ænd нhæ'i es bheex le•bən bhæxd dən ; æn $¥ h æ e^{\prime} i$ bhi'r fərlææ'n æn nóu es or bhee rifon [bhe. fóun M].
on gi-im $\partial$ req on-t and, ${ }^{7}$ an shut in ә-t fit (fit). ${ }^{8}$

23 on breq-t fed koof, ən slef•tə-t; ${ }^{3}$ let-s eet, on bi mor $i i^{4}$

24 kəs dhis led-ə máin wว di${ }^{2} \mathrm{~d}^{5}$ ən nee iz lev'in agii'n; $i$ wə last, an nee iz fun ${ }^{6}$ agien on dha bigon ta $\mathrm{b} i$ gam•sum. ${ }^{7}$

25 on-t óu dis $^{6}$ led war-i-t tloo ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{s}^{7}{ }^{7}$ ən wen $i$ went tul $\cdot$ ədz t -ee'z, ${ }^{8}$ วn kum tlóis ${ }^{9}$ be-t, $i i^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{d}^{10} \mathrm{t}-\mathrm{seq} \cdot i \mathrm{n}$ әn don ${ }^{*} \mathrm{sin}$.

26 on-i koold wun ə iz fee dha ${ }^{3}$ men bi im, on ekst im wat it wor. ${ }^{4}$

27 ən- $i$ sed tol-im : dhi brw dhə-z kom, an-dhi fee dhaz slef•tad t-fed koof for-im k $u \mathrm{~m} \cdot$ in bek see'nd. ${ }^{3}$

28 bot- $i$ get med ${ }^{6}$ on wod'nt goo in, ${ }^{7}$ soo iz fee dhe went ee't, an bisó $u \cdot t^{8}$ in tul.

29 dhen $i$ spek ta-t fee dhar $i$ dhes run'd, ${ }^{5}$ sez-ii': nob•at sii ee' ${ }^{6}$ mon- $i$
 nóut raq ${ }^{9}$ อgic'n Jo, bodio Joo-v miiu. 'mii nu'n-o-a ked gin, ${ }^{11}$ soo az •00 onoo $\mathrm{l}^{12}$ mod ${ }^{13}$ fə wuns bi mor $i$ w $i$ dhem to $o$ noo. ${ }^{14}$

30 bod nee at dhes led a jee'rz ${ }^{3}$ ez $\mathrm{k} u u \cdot \mathrm{~m}$, at-s get'n throo wat $\mathrm{J} i \cdot \mathrm{ev}$ w $i$ uıiz, ${ }^{4}$ nee Joo-v guu'n ${ }^{5}$ on slef•ted t -fet-fed koof for-im.

31 dhen sed t-fee dhex tol-im: bee'n, ${ }^{3}$ -dhaa-z ${ }^{4}$ oo las bi-ma, on ool ət-s máin iz dháin ənoo $1 .{ }^{5}$

32 wi-mən dhan bi mari an dled$\mathrm{sam}^{3}$ láik, kos dhes bru-dhər-0-dha wəx dii'd, әи-i wәa lost, on nee iz fun agit ${ }^{\prime \prime} 11$.

## 5. Notes on the Friesian and Halifax Versions.

$11 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) approaching (kéar). ${ }^{2}$ ) at times approaching (mon, mon, man), and sometimes rather lengthened, as also in (lan, Hhan), both F and M. ${ }^{3}$ ) although written $d y$, both F and M agree here. ${ }^{4}$ ) "almost three o's," as M said; but I sometimes
thought I heard (so'n•ən, soo'nən). F called attention to the resemblance and difference between the word and Dutch zwaan, swan.

Ma. ${ }^{5}$ ) Mr. Rolinson marks (tán ${ }^{n} \mathrm{~m}$ ). as a general rule 1 have marked the medial vowel in diphthongs as short in
dialectal trauscriptions, its real length is in such cases rather variable. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'lads,' there is a great tendency to this thinning in the more refined specelt.
$12 F .{ }^{1}$ ) the sound which I have here thronghout written ( $($ ) seemed at times ( $x$ ) or ( 0 ), and may have been (xh); the English (a) may certainly be always used. ${ }^{2}$ ) this vowel hovered between ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{x}$ ), but on the whole ( $x$ ) seemed to be nearest. ${ }^{3}$ ) the diphthongs $y, e i$, were both pronounced alike, but both seemed unfixed, and hovered among ( $x^{\prime} \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{a}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$, æ'i) for the first element, and ( $x^{\prime} i, x^{\prime} i, x^{\prime} e$, æ'e) for the second. as I use (æ) in fen (fæn), I write ( $x$ 'i) as a compromise throughout. ${ }^{4}$ ) the (tsh) was distinct in both F and M , and hence probably in all the other Friesian specimens it ought to be used. but occasionally I seemed to hear (ti-, tsi-). the rowel was unfixed as ( $e, e$ ), at least I could not feel certain, except that it was not ( E ), and not ( $\mathrm{i}, i) .{ }^{5}$ ) (sin) had distinct (i), not (e), and hence is clearly (siin) shortened by rapid utterance. ${ }^{6}$ ) (rih) was generally distinct ( $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{l}}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ), not simple ( H ). this is the general word for father, as (mæm) for mother. F and M did not know tete, tata. ${ }^{7}$ ) the (g) seemed clear, not (gh, gh), as in Dutch, but in Emden, sp. 37, it was (ghout). (u') seemed to vary as (uce'), thus (gu'd, guœ'd, gus'd), exactly as in English, in both F and M. (d) final was distinctly not ( t ; I I did not sufficiently notice the dental ( d ) to be sure of it. ${ }^{8}$ ) (me) for (mæ'i) when without force, shewing that (me, me, mæ, mæ'i) were the probable stages; it is not a change of (æ'i) into (ee). ${ }^{9}$ ) the short rowel in ( $\mathrm{t} a$ ) must be noticed, it was quite run on to the consonant, as I have indicated. ${ }^{10}$ ) in Winkler (di'ld $\partial$ ), but F knew only (dee-lda) ${ }^{11}$ ) here $F$ and M differed materially, one ignoring the inserted (i), and keeping the aspirate, and the other allowing the aspirate to be driven out by the inserted (i); both occur in English dialects.

Ha. ${ }^{12}$ ) ' youngest,' no $t$. ${ }^{13}$ ) 'till= to the father,' the $r$ vanishes frequently. ${ }^{14}$ ) " when the word stands isolated, or when it ends a sentence, or is followed by a word begimning with a vowel, then the $r$ must necessarily be heard; in other positions the word is, by rule, deprived of the $r$ "-C. C. R. ${ }^{15}$ ) 'give me the share of the stuff what is to come to me,' or, more character-
istically, (de'l $\theta z$ e't $\partial z$ oen) 'deal us out us = our own.'
$13 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) here I seemed to hear (gh) clearly. ${ }^{2}$ ) Dutch na, German nach, ' after, towards.' ${ }^{3}$ ) F's (bi tshə), not (be-tsha), may have really been (bitsho), as M lengthened the vowel ; short (i) seems most probable, as a representative of long (ii). ${ }^{4}$ ) both F and M agreed in long (aa), though the original has short (a). ${ }^{5}$ ) I doubt the (aa), it may have been only (ənudis); (aa) does not seem to occur intentionally, but only to be generated by following consonants. ${ }^{6}$ ) the (éa) was here distinct; it is the German $\boldsymbol{z o g}$ (tsoogh). i) (fúrrt), both F and M agreed, in (ú), in trilled ( r ), and in final ( t ), and not (th) or (dh). F said that so far from (th) being Friesian, he had had very great difficulty in mastering it. ${ }^{8}$ ) (lan), at times (laan), and nearly (lann), quite as in Scotch. ${ }^{9}$ ) (brokht) with (o) rather than (o). ${ }^{10}$ ) (al) was always very like (Al). ${ }^{11}$ ) Winkler, noting the Hindeloopenish (sp. 89) form oerwealsk, which he considers to be more correct, translates it into Dutch as overweelderig, over-luxurious or wanton, and derives it from old Friesian weald, English 'wealth.' as respects the $d$, however, we must remember the old Saxon forms glot-uuelo, gold-uuelo, $\bar{d} d$-uuelo, for riches in the plural, see Schmeller's glossary to the Meliand, sub uuelo.

Ha. ${ }^{12}$ ) 'a piece at after,' a little after that, observe short (i), not (i). ${ }^{13}$ ) 'gathered,' this is quite Friesian. ${ }^{14}$ ) 'made his road.' ${ }^{15}$ ) 'till-wards' =towards. ${ }^{16}$ ) 'a far land,' the refined (lend) is most usually heard, the unrefined is (lond). ${ }^{17}$ ) 'brought himself through all that he had.' ${ }^{18}$ ) 'overhigh,' or, equally common, (ou $u \cdot \partial-$ den 'ti) ' over dainty.' 19) 'living.'
$\left.14 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}\right) \mathrm{F}$ preferred (kuaim), M said that was Dutch. ${ }^{2}$ ) Dutch krap, narrow. ${ }^{3}$ ) or (oo'n, oon). ${ }^{4}$ ) this was the form MI knew, not (néad). ${ }^{5}$ ) both F and M seemed to say (q) at the end. ${ }^{6}$ ) F said brekme was quite out of use, Winkler says it is becoming rapidly obsolete, and is replaced by Dutch gebrek, M admitted (brae k'm). 7) for leiden, the $d$ lost as usual.
$H a .{ }^{8}$ ) for (gə t, gat), 'great.' ${ }^{9}$ ) 'hunger,' observe absent aspirate, and the ( $q$ ) for ( $q g$ ). ${ }^{10}$ ) 'starve,' a common Yorkshire word, usually writteu clem, clam; another phrase is,
[kud'nt báid], 'could not bide' or last out.

15 Fr. ${ }^{1}$ ) both F and M agreed in (sh), but with F the (i) seemed to have exhausted itself in making this change, while in $M$ the (i) remained with its original stress. the Duteh has made the juncture (yy) in stuuren (styy ran) to steer, or send. ${ }^{2}$ ) (dzh) was clear in each, the word stands for Dutch weiden (bho'i-don), and the change of (d) into (dzh), instead of ( s ), or simple omission, as in (le'ir-m) r. 14, is noticeable, the two seem to point to an intermediate (bhæ'iddjon), which would easily fall into either. the word is connected with Euglish weed, withe.

Ha. ${ }^{3}$ ) 'agatewards', on his gate or road; although gang is known so near as the Craven district, it is not used in Halifax. ${ }^{4}$ ) 'townsmen,' burgesses, citizens. ${ }^{5}$ ) relative at $=$ that in meaning, but the derivation is disputed. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'woods.' ${ }^{7}$ ) 'root,', give roots to, feed.
$16 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) ( ( $e \cdot \mathrm{rn}$ ) was pronounced by both F and M as obsolete, they did not know it, and both used the Dutch word graag, 'eager, desirous, hungry,' but F seemed to say (graakt), possibly my mishearing for (graakh), while M said (graagh). ${ }^{2}$ ) this seems to be Dutch voeder 'fodder,' with the $d$ omitted. it is curious that (uu) is sometimes spelled oe as in Dutch, and sometimes $\hat{u} .{ }^{3}$ ) 'more,' and hence 'but,' as French mais = Latin magis. ${ }^{4}$ ) Dutch and German niemand. ${ }^{\text {5 }}$ ) although I noted (sung), F may have said (suugh).
$H a .{ }^{6}$ ) 'he would fair have eaten.' ') 'pigment' is " any offally mess, unworthy food, a mixture of ingredients of any kind ; onc of the commonest of South Yorkshire words; it has nothing whatever to do with paint, and would not be understood dialectally in this sense."-C. C. R.

17 Fr . ${ }^{1}$ ) see v. 14, note 1. ${ }^{2}$ ) this was from M, I have not noted F ; observe the final ('m). ${ }^{3}$ ) the (-dogh) as in Dutch, a short faint deep guttural vowel sound, possibly (-dahah), very peculiar in character. ${ }^{4}$ ) see v . 12 , note 11; it is the old English here. ${ }^{5}$ ) final (d) omitted, the fracture strong, the (a) clear.
Ha. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'himself,' the rowel in (seel) is rather medial than long. "in the villages about Halifax and Keighley, and generally in the Lower Craven district (classification, variety 23a), the
$l$ is usually followed by $n$, as (isec. $\ln$, wasee•ln, asee•lu, misce'ln, dhasee• $\operatorname{lnz}$ ), and these are casual Halifax forms; so also $n$ is added in (miln, meln) for mill. sometimes the $l$ is lost to the ear in (sen) for self, and when $l$ is heard in this word, $n$ is lost, as (seel). I have also often heard people add on an $m$." -C. C. R. ${ }^{7}$ ) "(bre'd), usually (brii’d) in South Yorkshire, and many Halifax speakers use this sound; the vowel in this word, is unsettled and varies in localities but little distant from each other."-C. C. R.
$\left.18 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}\right)$ the $c$ in scil was not noticed in pronounciation, it seems to be entirely etymological. ${ }^{2}$ ) (e'n), and not (éan), in each. ${ }^{3}$ ) (us), this is merely remembered, not noted, in other Friesian I find (yys). ${ }^{4}$ ) both F and M objected to the $d$ in sidze, but F seemed to lengthen the vowel. ${ }^{5}$ ) neither F nor M acknowledged $\operatorname{sûn}=$ (suun), but I seemed to hear (zœn) from one, and (son) from the other ; the ( $z$ ) was slight, "more of a $z$ " as F said, and may have been (sz). ${ }^{6}$ ) here there was the same difference in the length of the vowel as in note 4. ${ }^{7}$ ) both objected to foar, and Winkler says " or bifoar, but tsin is better Friesian." The
 $\sigma o \hat{v}$ seems to have led all translators to adopt a real Hebraism in this place. ${ }^{8}$ ) both F and M said (Jóu) exactly as in v. 12 for 'give,' and objected to the $j u$ of Winkler.

Ha. ${ }^{9}$ ) 'I shall,' or Ise. ${ }^{10}$ ) 'sinned.' ${ }^{11}$ ) " (foox) is common in this position in the sonthern dialects (classitication, subdialect 23); at Halifax it is called (fuи')."-C. C. R.
$19 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) I am not quite certain whether F said (nuu) or (nóu), but I think the latter; and M certainly did say so. ${ }^{2}$ ) F gave the two first, and said that (bhoegh) was commonest, " as if written with Dutch $u$," M omitted the (d), and made two syllables. ${ }^{3}$ ) same variety as in v. 12, note 11. ${ }^{4}$ ) this (ar•z) may have been accidental.

Ha. ${ }^{5}$ ) 'now.' "here (nec), because of the following (0) for $I$; (nee) is the usnal form in Lower Craven ; (net) is also used."-C. C. R. . ${ }^{6}$ ) 'I am-not.' ${ }^{7}$ ) 'worth being called.' " (bin) is in v. 21 (to bi), both forms are in use, but the first is considered to be most refined.',-C. C. R. ${ }^{8}$ ) 'nought but,' only. ${ }^{9}$ ) 'workers.'
$20 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) both F and M objected
to stoe (stuu), but MI said (stuu) could be used, though (stii) was more common. ${ }^{2}$ ) F said (Jæ•ta) was not heard, M said it was still used "by old-fashioned people." ${ }^{3}$ ) (AA), the (f) of off dropped. ") F did not pronounce the $d$ or attend to the $e$ in ae, but MI did both. ${ }^{5}$ ) both seem to be old-fashioned words. ${ }^{6}$ ) this is another confusion of short and long. ${ }^{7}$ ) this was from M, I have not noted F. ${ }^{8}$ ) 'patted,' not ' kissed,' as I was told, but Winkler says, on the Hindeloopenish paaike (specimen 89, v. 20), " kissed, from paaikje, to kiss; the usual Friesian is patsje, patte; een zoen, 'a kiss,' is in Hindeloopenish en paaik, and in usual Friesian en patsje, and formerly, as still found in Gysbert Japicx, en pea."
$H a .{ }^{9}$ ) 'to the.' "in the Leeds dialect (tat, tut), the latter emphatic and before a pause; in Halifax the heary sound may be either (tat, tot), but seems most like the latter.'-C. C. R. ${ }^{10}$ ) ' while.' ${ }^{11}$ ) 'off on him,' off of or from him. ${ }^{12}$ ) 'overmastered at heart,' or (wo sluft a-t siit an im), ' was sloughed, or choked with sobs, at the sight of him.' ${ }^{13}$ ) Mr. Robinson says there is no other word for caress than pat ; caress would not be understood, at least when spoken.

21 Fr . and Ha. see the notes on the parallel passage, v. 18.

22 Fr . ${ }^{1}$ ) not (breqg) or (breqk) ${ }^{2}$ ) see v. 13, note 7. ${ }^{3}$ ) M admitted (tshe'n), but said (tshokh), German zog (tsookh), was more usual. ${ }^{4}$ ) see (lan), v. 13, note 8. ${ }^{\circ}$ ) I hesitated as to (fúa $\cdot$ ton) or (fuee ${ }^{\circ}$ ton), the ( $u$ ) was clear, but the force seemed to vary.

Ha. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'clothes here.' ${ }^{7}$ ) 'on the hand.' ${ }^{8}$ ) ' feet,' either with short (i) or short (i). "(fuu't) is occasionally heard for foot in Halifax and Lower Craven, but it is more general towards the north."-C. C. R.

23 Fr. ${ }^{1}$ ) ' masted,' fed on mast, as beech-mast, oak-mast, hence fattened. ${ }^{2}$ ) the (f) lost.

Ha. ${ }^{3}$ ) 'slaughter it. ${ }^{4}$ ) ' let us eat and be merry.'
$\left.24 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}\right) \mathrm{I}$ did not observe any aspirate or approach to (Hhuæ•nt), but I may have overlooked it. ${ }^{2}$ ) no trace of ( $r$ ) or $(x)$ in the second syllable certainly, in the first I am doubtful. ${ }^{3}$ ) (bhex, bheex) 'again,' Dutch veder with omitted (d), as our old whe'er for whether, the last syllable (fo'n, fórun), seemed to vary thus, but the distinction
is too fine to insist on. ${ }^{4}$ ) see r. 14, note 5 , the ( $q$ ) was in this case noted from both F and $\mathbf{M}$.
$\left.H a .{ }^{\circ}\right)$ ' this lad of mine was dead.' $\left.{ }^{6}\right)$ ' found.' i) 'gamesome.'
$25 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) the $d$ was not heard, the (a) was nearly ( A ) $^{2}$ ) the final ( d ) of F was distinct, and the final ( t ) of M quite as clear, the (e) of (ie) was distinct, and hence the force doubtful (ie, ié). ${ }^{3}$ ) no (th), German dicht, 'close.' 4) the (tsh) arises from the coalescent article (t), (sho. (pon) is the word otherwise ; this serves to shew the correctness of the analysis (tsh). ${ }^{5}$ ) as (duu nshon) is implied by the spelling, it was probably also so heard.

Ha. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'oldest.' ${ }^{7}$ ) 'in the close' or field. ${ }^{8}$ ) ' the house.' ${ }^{9}$ ) 'close,' adv. observe the difference between ${ }^{7}$ ) and $\left({ }^{9}\right)$, (tloo is, tlóis). ${ }^{10}$ ) 'heard.'
$26 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) uninflected genitive. ${ }^{2}$ ) Dutch beduiden (badoe'i-dan) 'signify.'
$H a .{ }^{3}$ ) uninflected genitive. ${ }^{4}$ ) 'asked him what it wor = was.' observe that both (wəx) and (wor) occur in this example, and compare ( $475, c$ ):
$27 \mathrm{Fr}^{1}{ }^{1}$ ) the final (d) distinet, almost the vulgar English comed. ${ }^{2}$ ) final ( t ), not ( th ).
$H a^{3}$ ) 'for him coming back sound,' on account of his coming back sound.
$28 \mathrm{Fr} .^{1}$ ) properly 'envious,' Dutch nijdig, German neidisch. ${ }^{2}$ ) as both F and M said (bhuu), probably wol is a misprint for woe, which is written in v. 16. ${ }^{3}$ ) I presume in 'e hûs is a misprint for in't hês, I did not particularly notice the $l .{ }^{4}$ ) the (z) seems due to the following (g). ${ }^{5}$ ) German bat. ihm darum.

Ha. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'gat mad.' ${ }^{7}$ ) 'go in,' viz. to the house; the word house is generally omitted in ordinary speech, and invariably in the dialect. observe that the sound is here (goo), but in v. 18 it was (gu'); when the fracture occurs, the vowel changes, and whether the fracture should be used or not depends upon the context. we find therefore in one word, having an original (aa) vowel, ags. gân, both an (oo) and an (uu) sound subsisting side by side in the same dialect; of course (goo) comes through (gaa, gaa, gai, goo), and (gu') through (guáa, gúa, gúa, g gi); but the example is extremely instructive, and shers the necessity of great caution in older cases. ") Mr. Robiuson says that the past participle of beg is scouted, except in 'begged and prayed.'
$\left.29 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}\right)$ andert was not acknowledged; the two forms given were merely Dutch antwoord, with the second syllable obscured and $r$ omitted. ${ }^{2}$ ) a form of Dutch diene, serve; this is taken as tjerje, and so becomes (tshronjə). ${ }^{3}$ ) F almost said (frœœ-nən), I have not noted M. ${ }^{4}$ ) German auch dereinst.

Ha. ${ }^{5}$ ) 'in this road,' in this way. ${ }^{6}$ ) 'how,' a regular change. ${ }^{7}$ ) 'year,' the singular of quantity. ${ }^{8}$ ) 'served you-all.' ${ }^{9}$ ) 'wrong.' ${ }^{10}$ ) 'but.' ${ }^{11}$ ) ' you have never me none of a kid given,' observe the order of the words. ${ }^{12}$ ) ' $I$ and all.' the words ' and all' are a very common expletive in several dialects. ${ }^{13}$ ) might. ${ }^{14}$ ) 'those that I know'; Mr. Robinson observes that the word friend is very rarely heard in dialect speech.

30 Fr . ${ }^{1}$ ) (gúad, guœ'd), I did not notice this variable force in v. 12. ${ }^{2}$ ) this (wœ..n) is evidently obtained thus:
(нhúə rən, нhuœ'rən, wœ'rən, wœ.m), ii indeed I ought not rather to have noted (ué.xn), as I think more probable.

Ha. ${ }^{3}$ ) 'yours.' ${ }^{4}$ ) 'whores.' ${ }^{5}$ ) ' gone.'
$31 \mathrm{Fr} .{ }^{1}$ ) perhaps both said (bæn), the $r$ was quite unpronounced. ${ }^{2}$ ) the variation between (ee, e'i) is here important in respect to Early English, for the speakers were two men of the same village, and nearly of the same age and standing.

Ha. ${ }^{3}$ ) 'bairn.' 4) 'thou is.' ${ }^{5}$ ) see v. 29, note 12 .
$32 \mathrm{Fr}^{1}{ }^{1}$ ) (mo'st) was M's pronunciation; I am inclined to think that his (sooon), see v. 11, note 4, was rather (soo'n) or (so'n). ${ }^{2}$ ) for the rest of the verse see notes on the parallel passage in v. 24.

Ha. ${ }^{3}$ ) 'gladsome,' for (dl) compare v. 14 (tlem).
88. Workum, town (52 $n 58$, $5 e 26$ ). I. 441. [As it was still generally spoken up to the year 1800.]

11 dar bhi'r ris en mi'nska, da'i hi' tbha so' $n ə n . ~ 12$ in нә"i dee-ldə Јə rən 't ghud. 15 om da barrghən to wéi dsən. 18 нéit! ik нev suu ndighə tshin [or (tíin)] Jóu. 22 briq sir daa lik də be sta kléan, in doogh sa нim oon; in Jéan him en riq oon siin hasn in sku nan oon ə fu'tan. 23 't me'stə kéal. 24 bhant diza soon fan ma'i bhi'r déa, in нә' 1 is bler fuurndən. 25 in də man siin AA'dsta soon bhi'r in-t fuild [or (fíild)], in doo da'i koom, in ba'i -t нuus bhi'r Jhe"Lrda нә'i -t sió $q$ qən end -t spiillıan. 27 Jóu bro'r. 29 dat ik máai miin friœœe'nən froo lik bhe zo mo khta. 31 ba_rn, dóu bi•sto A•ltiit ba'i ma'i.
89. Hindeloopen, town (52n57, 5 e 24). I. 445.

11 sii $\cdot \mathrm{k} ə \mathrm{r}$ mi $\cdot \mathrm{nsk} ə$ нee'b tbhaa soons. 12 in нi dee lda Jem-t ghood. 15 om op də barghən to pa'sjən. 18 feer, iik нeb suu-ndighe tsen si. 22 briiq hir daa•dlik't be'stə pak klaan, in duáan it нim oon, in JAAn him әn riiq oon siin наand, in skoon oon siin fu'tan. 23 't me'sta kaal. 24 bhant di'zo miin soon bhee'r daa, in mii iis wor fuu'ndən. 25 in siin éalsta soon weer iin-t fild in dææ нii tikht bi нуу's [(нuu's) ?] kasm, нее ${ }^{[ }$rd ${ }^{2}$ нii-t ghesuu•q in-t gheduu'ns, 27 diin bro'r. 29 dot iik
méi miin free'ndon ek ris no khlik ['agreeable,' genoeglijk] bhææ'zə kaAst. 31 bolrn, duu bist altiid bii mii.
90. Schiermonnikoog, island $53 n 28,6 e 12$ ). I. 458. [In Friesian (ski'rmuu'ntsiéakh) or (ski'rmuu'ntsiáekh).]

11 dar bhiir réis 'n man, in dii hiéa tbhaa jo'qes. 12 in har héit ['father'] dee-ldə наг -t ghyy'd. 15 om наг sbhii na to нyy'dan. 18 ik Hev seáu•nə diin tshin [or (tsíin)] Joo. 22 briq uiir -t bost pak kláaina, in tshokh it yim oon, in Jœo'u нim 'n riq oon siin нáaun, in skyy'nə oon siin fo'tan. 23 't ma'sta kalf. 24 bhant di so qo bhiéa dáaid, in нii is bhiir fiéaun. 25 in do óu•dsto sœeœn bhiéa iill -t láaun, in daa -t ər nóoi нyys to syy'o, in ti khta bii koom, нее'Lrsa нii sió qan in dáau nsson. 27 diin bryy-or. 29 dot ik móoi miin freáuna réis plesii•r me'tshə kyy:ә. . 31 be_rn, do bi'sta $0 \%$ daa ghən bii mii.
[There has been much difficulty in translating the symbols. The (uu) seems not to occur. On dao jured= (daa Jyy'd), Winkler says it is 'the people,'Dutch de lieden," usual Friesian liu, liuwe, which word is in some places called ljue, ljuwe, and in others〈јоиже," "(liúa, liy'ə, lióu•ว). " $L$ and $r$ are for Friesians, as for their national relations the English, difficult letters to pronounce, and are often omitted,
and hence the Schiermonnikoogers omit $l$ and $r$ in the combinations $l j, r j$ ．＂ Then he gives examples，juued for liu， ＂as the Hindeloopers say lccad＂$=$ （lée＇d）？；juocht for riucht，sjuocht for sluscht，so that sjuocht in juocht＝high German schlecht und recht，is a shibbo－ leth of these islanders；and may be （siy＇kht in sy＂kht）（ $1397, b^{\prime}$ ）．Another curions point is the use of（ -s ） for（ - th，-dh ）final，or of（dh）or（d） medial，even in participles，as fortaor＇s $=($ fortaars $)$ ，high Gcrman verzehrt， ＇devoured，＇nsual Friesian fortard． ＂The Friesians on the continent have frequently softened the old th to $d$ ．＂ Examples are stjucrsene，＇steered， stirred，sent，＇usual stiûrden；we sig ＇worthy，＇we ${ }_{r} s e n$＇become，＇hee ${ }_{r}$ se ＇heard，＇ierse＇earth，＇hers＇hard．＇］

## b．Low Gerifan in Friesland． I． 461 ．

91．Leeuwarden，city（ $53 n 12$ ， $5 e 47$ ）．I．468．［This is where Winkler resides．］

11 dər bhaar－əs－on man，in dii на $\cdot$ də tbhii•o sœeæ•nen． 12 in duu fardee－lda da óu＇də man нar－t ghyyd． 15 op ə ba＇rghon te pa•sen． 18 faa $\cdot d a r$ ，ik hee so ndə deen tœo厄 ghən Jóu． 22 breq нiir ghón ris＇t be＇stə pak klee ren，in trek him dat an，in gheef－am－ən riq an siin Han，in skyy＇nən an siin fyy－ton． 23 ＇t me＇sta kalf．． 24 bhant di＇za sœœn fan ma＇i bhaar dood，in nóu hee bhee－＇m bheero＇m fo non． 25 in da man siin óu－stə sceæn bhaar op－t land， in duu dii bheero $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ kbham，in di $\cdot \mathrm{khta}$ ba＇i нууs kbham，ноо rd i нuи－t sa so qen in danstən． 27 sóu bruur． 29 daa－ k unk－s met miin fri•ndən froo $\cdot \mathrm{lik}$ bhee＇za mo－khta． 31 kiin，dóu bi•stə o•mər re a•ltiid ba＇i ma＇i．

92．Dokkum，town（53 n 19， $6 e 0$ ）．I． 477.

11 dor bhar－as－ən man，in dii наd tbhii• sœœ‘nən． 12 in нә＇i ghaf ног hoor ghoyy＇d［＂a very short perfect o precedes a long，perfect，and somewhat lengthened $u$ ，on which the stress falls，＂this is the noun goods ；the ad－ jective good is（ghn＇d）］． 15 om op ə ba＇rghon to pa＇son． 18 faa dar，ik неv so ndighed toceen［and（teee ghən）］ faa dor． 22 briq daa dolik da be－sta klee＇ron miir，in duun rim dii an，in gheef－əm－ən riq an siin нап，in sknu－－ non an o fuu＇tan． 23 ＇t me＇sto kalf．

24 bhant di＇za sœon fan ma＇i bhar dood in nón is arfo nen． 25 in siin ou＇sta sceen bhar in－t land，in duu－t ar dikht ba＇i нy＞s kbham，нoord－ər－t si•q－ әn in－t darnsən． 27 Jóu bruur． 29 dat ik ok－s froolik bhee＇za kon met miin fri•ndən． 31 kiin，dóu bist a $\cdot$ ltiiton ba＇i ma＇i．

93．Bolsward，town（53 n 3， 5 e 32）．I． 481.

11 ＇n man（＇n mins）нad tbhii＇a sœœ•nən． 12 in нә’i dee lda нyyr－t ghoœ＇d．［＂the imperfect $u$ in $p u t$＂$=$ （pœot，pat），see（1292，a＇），Dutch for pit， or well，＂with preceding perfect $o$ ．＂］ 15 op a barghən ta pa•sən． 18 нéit， ik Hef so uda deend tæoe ghon sóu． 22 briq＇m niir siin be－sta klee ran，in trek see＇m an，in gheer－om－on riq an siin нan，in skuu＇non an a fuu＇tan． 23 ＇t fe＇to kalf． 24 bhant di＇zo sœœn fan ma＇i bhar doo＇d in ii is bheero＇m fornon． 25 in siin óu＇sta sween bhar op－t lan，in duu dii dikht ba＇i нууs kbham，hóord ii－t si＇qэn，in－t da nsan． 27 јә bruur． 29 daa $-k$ met miin fri＇ndən－s froo lik bhec z ə mokht． 31 kiin，dóu bist altiid ba＇i mii．［We find 20 （lii＇p）ran，（fii＇l）fell，（in dun－t i nogh＇n Heel ind fan＇m o bhar） ＇and when he yet a whole end from bim off was，＇（o）for（of）off，with（f） suppressed．］

## 94．Nes op＇t Ameland，village

 of Nes in the island of Ameland（ $53 n 27$ ， 5 e 45）．I． 486.11 ＇n see kər minsk Had tbhii•ə sœœ⿱㇒日勺心． 12 gheef ma＇i＇t deel fan－t ghuu＇d．in də faa•dər ghaf sa elk siin paarrt． 15 om da ba rghan to нuu＇dan． 18 ik нev mai an són beso ndighd． 22 briq－t be＇sta pak klee ran Hiir，in trek －$t$ im an，in gheef＇n riq an siin han，in skuu＇nan an a fuu＇ton． 23 ＇t me＇sto kalf． 24 bhant dœœ＇za miin sœœn bhaar doo＇d，in is bheerfo＇nən． 25 mar də man siin óu＇stə sœeœen bhar op－t lan，in duu dii kam，in dikht ba＇i－t нууs ko＇mon bhar，ноо＂Lrdə нә＂i－t si：qən in da•nsən． 26 ii＇n［one］． 27 Jóu bruur． 29 om met miin frii＇ndon froo lik to bhee＇za． 31 miin kiin，Jóu bi＇na altiid ba＇i ma＇i．［＂The pure long（ii）has often been changed into the Hollandish（ $\partial^{\prime}$ i），but the Amelanders are not consistent，and you may hear them say：（bha＇i se gho a．ltiid to＇id， in nii＇t tiid），＇we all－teed（tiid）say tide （ta＇id），and not teed（tiid）．＇＂Such in－
consistencies are valuable for shewing the unconsciousness of transitions.]
95. Het Bildt, parish, a Dutch gemeente, and lordship, Dutch grietenij, containing St. Anna-Parochie, village ( $53 n 17,5 \varepsilon 40$ ). I. 492.

11 dər bhæerer as 'n man, dii rad tbhee sœœ:nən. 12 on noti paLr ta нœœ๐ -t ghuud yrt ona'ndər. 15 om də fe revens to blíái•ən. 18 нáit, ik неv ma'i baso-ndighd tœœ๐ Јо́n. 22 нææl -t be'sta kleed foor -t likht ən duun mim dat an, ən gheef nim 'n riq an siin Hand, on sknu'nən an a fuu'ton. 23 't fe'tmest kalf. 24 bhant
 әп нә'i is fo'nən. $25 \mathrm{~m} æ r$ də man siin óu dstə sœœen bhæær in -t feld, ən duu dii bheero'm kam, an di•khta ba'i -t нyys bhæær, нoord ii-t ghasi-q on-t ghaspri•q. 27 Jón bruur. 29 dat ik met miin ghundo fri.ndən as froo lik bhee'za mo khta. 31 kiind, dóu bist a-ltiid ba'i me'i.
96. Noordwolde, village (52n53, $6 e 8)$. I. 498.

11 'n zee-kər meens на'də tbhii' zœœ'nən. 12 an His dii.lda нœœ๐ 't ghuu'd. 15 om də varkans to нyy‘dən. 18 нéit, ik hee zoe'ndighd tee ghən Jóu. 22 breq нiir aa-nstons 't be'sto kliid, an trek -t nom an, on gheet 'n riqk an ziin наand on skhuu nən, an ә bii'nən. 23 't ve'tə kaalf. 24 bhant di'za zœœ'nə van mis bhas dood, an nou is his vœ.nən. 25 ən ziin o.lsta zœe.nə bhas op a a•kər, an tuи is kbham, әn bis нyys bhas, нøœ'rde нiJ-t zi• qәn on Jun•lon ['revel,' Dutch word]. 27 Jóu brœocr. 29 om mit miin kameraa $\cdot$ dən vroo lik to bhee-zən. 31 kiind, is bin a.ltiid bis miJ.
XXV. Noord-Holland, in English Province of North Holland. II. 1.
97. Wester-Schelling, west part of island of 'ter-Schelling ( $53 n 20$, 5e 13). II. 10.

11 dir bhaas in minsk, dii uii tbhaa sins. 12 in ta ['father'] Jookh ['gave'] elk siin o'ndeel ['share']. I5 om op də barghon to pa-șən. 18 ta, ik на so-ndighd tshin [or (tsíin)] Jo. 22 на-lıa ghóu da be'sta kle'n, dokb 's нim o'n, stek 'n riq o'n siin fi.qər, in dokh sko'nən o'n sin fotan. 23 't me-stə kéal. 24 bhant miin sin, dii for yys deed bhas, is bher foq ['found,'
or 'caught']. 25 da aA'dsto sin bhaas iin -t fyild [or (fíld)] in daa нi, bii-t néi $\quad$ нys taA gheen, ti-khta bii koom nee rda nii -t sió qən in-t spii luən. 27 diin bruur. 29 om mii méi miin fro-qən froolik to mái'tJən. 31 okh, miin borrn, doo bi'sta 0 mos alliid bii mii.
98. Ooster-Schelling, east part of island of ter-Schelling (53 $n 20$, 5 e 20). II. 15.

11 dər bhaas ris' $n$ minsk, in dii uii tbhaa sins. 12 in də man dee ldə -t ghuru'd. 15 om op da barghan to pa'son. 18 ta, ik ha ghre'ta so nda tshin [or (tsíin)] ta bidrii-on. 22 briq də be'sta kle'n, in dokh rim dii o'n, in sokh Him-ən riq o'n siin HAAn, in sko'nən o'n siin fo-tan. 23 't fa'ta ke'l. 24 bbant dœ'za sin fan mii bhas deed, in нii is bher foon. 25 in da AA dsta sin bhaas op -t fsild [or (fíild)], in as ні tikht bi нyys koom, неerda нii sió qən in spii lləən. 27 diin brumr. 29 dak ik méi miin frœœ'nən froo lik bhe'ro kuu'. 31 miin sin, doo bist a.ltiid bi mii.
99. Midslands, village, middle-of-the-land of ter-Schelling ( $53 \times 20$, 5 e 15). II. 18.

11 dor bhaar ris-ən mins, di наd tbhii' socœens. 12 in нә'i dee ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ld}$ н наr-t ghuu'd. 15 om op da barghan ta pa'son. 18 ta, ik hef so-ndighd twerghən ta. 22 наal ghóu -t be'stə kleed, in duu'n нim dat an, in duu'n sim-an riq an siin fi$\cdot q \not a r$, in skuu'nen an siin fuu•tan. 24 bhant miin soeœn dii ik mii''nda [' thought'] dat dood bhaar, is bher fornan. 25 da ón $\begin{gathered}\text { dsta scen }\end{gathered}$ bhaar in-t feld, in duu нә'і паа нууs ghoq, in di khtə ba'i kbham, ноо rdə на่і -t si•qən in -t da•usən.. 27 diin bruur. 29 om ma'i met miin maats ['mates'] ris froo lik ta maa'kən. 31 miin jo•qa, dóu bist i•mos a•ltoos bo'i ne'í.
100. Flicland, island (53n 15, 5 e 0). II. 22.

11 decr bhas dris 'n man, ren dii ad tbhii seens. 12 нen taat déildan -t ghuud no'ndər œт неп sin нóu•dstən bruur. 15 nom da sbhœ'nən ta bhéiron. 18 taat, нik eb so-ndighd toœ ghon sóu. 22 breq Jaloc'i [' you,' Dutch gijlieden] 't kna'psto pak iir, uen trek-әt-әт нап, 1 әп gheef 'n riq наn sin aqd [' hand'], uən skuu'nan uan siu fuurtan. $23^{\prime}$ 't kalf dat bhe nop -t ok
mest e bon. 24 bhaqt dœœ ${ }^{2}$ za min seen bhas dood, non a'i nis forndon. 25 hen de man sin nóu•dsto seen bhas nop -t feld, tuu dii nee iis ['near house'] kbham, oo rrdon o'i-t ghosi•q nen-t ghəda•us. 27 Јә bruur. 29 nom ris froo-lik ta bhee'zon met min maats. 31 kiind, jo bint ha:ltoed bo'i mee.
[Observe the regular omission and insertion of ( H ). (iis), for house, is said to have "a very peculiar sound between (iis) and (œs)." (dris), once, shers the form (ris) to be dereenst.]
101. Texel, island (52 $n 5$, $4 \varepsilon 47$ ). II. 26.

11 deer bhas oris'n man dii tbhii
 15 om op də forkes to po $\circ \mathrm{s}$. 18 taat, ik нebh ghroo to so nda deen tæee-ghə Jóu. 22 briq in 'n amara'i'tsso ['in an ave-maria!' in a moment!] miin be'sta rok Hiir an duun -am dii an, on gheef nim-on riq an siin нand, on skuu'na an siin biirne [' put shoes on his legs.' Winkler says he has been asked by a maidservant at Haarlem to wipe his legs (instead of his feet) on the doormat: meheeir! sel uwes assiblief je beeine of fege? see spec. 80 , for boots on feet]. 23 't fet me-sta kolf. 24 bhant dœeœ'zz sceen bhas foor ma'i net [' neat,' quite] so ghuud as dood, ən наді is bheero m fo $\quad$ nda. 25 an da oursta sceœen bhas op-t land, on duu i bheero'm kbham, on dikht ba'i нyys bhas, hoord i si-qə on spœœela. 27 Jә bruur. 29 om mit me frii-ndan ari's 'n parta'i an to le 'ghə. 31 kiind, Ja'i bent i'mors o lan ba'i mee.

## 102. Wieringen, island (52n55,

 $5 \in 0$ ). II. 30.11 dar bhas ari-s 'n man di tbhii so.qes nad. 12 in fan di so.qes, do Jo.qsta, fruugh an siin taat ['dad'] om siin me'mes ['mammy's'] babhii's; on dat kreegh i. 15 om da farkes ta bhái dən. 18 ik sel tæœ -ghon taat se gha dat ik so ndighd hef. 22 maar siin taat séi do toer'ghon siin knechs, dat so siin be-sto klee ra bre•qo mo-sta, en so-n a ntre-ko mo'sto, on dat so-n riq an siin raqd, on sknu na an siin bii'no duun mo'sto. 23 't me'sta kalf. 24 bhant siin scoen dii i dokht dat dood bhas, bhas nóu bheero $m$ fo qon. 25 maar tuu kbham dii aa•ro ['other'] Јo q尹 fan-t laqd-t nyys, on dií ноо rdə nuu-r so q.qn on daqst bhiird. 27 siin
bruur. 29 bheer на'i met aa•ro so'qes ris klukht [local word for 'pleasure'] mee maa kə mo'khtə. 31 kiin, sə'i bin a-ltoos ba'i mee.
103. Schagen, country town ( $52 n 47,4$ e 47). II. 35.

11 dor bhas-ar-s 'n raa'dor on dii had tbhee zœœens. 12 нә'i ghoq әr den maar tuu $0 \cdot$ vor om-om z'n por sii to ghee'van, deer i anspraak op had. 15 op da varkəns pa'sa. 18 m 'n vaa•dər is zoon gúui Jo keerol, as k-ar-s nee 'm tuu ghoq, on zéi•də dat -at-m'n spa'it ['food'] daa -k zos raar deen нер, dan, deqk $i k$, zóu- $k$ bhel bheer in нœ' is ko mə ma•ghə. 22 нә'i most in ii'non dii sti $k$ kanda klee'ra œ'it duun, on da knekht most nyy•a наa•la, an dii most ia ntre• 'ka, on i kreegh 'n ghéu•ən riq an $z$ 'n vi•qar, on skhuu'na an. 23 't mee'stkalf. 24 bhant m'n zœœn bhas zoว ghuud as doəd, nóu is i o.nvarbha•khs bheer o-pardan [Dutch opwarts an, upwards on] ko-man. 25 tbha'is zə in нœ'is a-los klaar maakt на•də, bhas də óu•stə zœœи nogh op-t land, on tuu -t zoэ bhat omee nonbe'i [Duteh om ende bij, nearly] skheemoreevand bhas, hat $i$ deen on tuu ghoq i nee he'is tuu, maar tuu i bhat di.khtar ba'i нœ'is kbham, ноэrd i dat zo zoo a'isala'ik [' awfully'] vroolak bha'zo. 27 зә broo'r. 29 tuи ik ii masdaa ghe kaməraa's ba'i m'n наd. 31 m'n Jo'qən, JEE bin a ltoos ba'i m'n bheest.
[The open long $e$ and $o$ are clearly pronoumeed and kept distinct from the close long $e$ and $o$. The open long $e$ in West Friesian pronunciation sounds "almost like the Friesian diphthong $e a, "$ or (éa, éa, e')," and the open long, o nearly agrees with the Friesian on," (óa, óa, $o^{\circ}$ ); but I have put (ee, эо) in the transcription, because the fracture was not sufticiently elearly indicated.]
104. Benningbroek, village ( $52 \sim 42,5 \ell 2$ ). Iİ. 41.

11 deer bhas or-s 'n man, in dii had tbhee soenens. 12 on нái dee $\cdot$ ldo nœœerle'i-t ghuud. 15 om da ve rkons to bhái don. 18 vaa-dor, ik Hebh kbhaad deen tocerghon Jóu. 22 breq нiir ghou da be'sto ploon [' elothing,' old (plyy njo), in Ostend (plee'itsjos), origin unknown], in duun 't 'm an, in gheef om-on riq an s'n nand, in skuu'no an s'nl bii-na. 23 't meest kalf. 24 bhant deerze m'n sœecn bhas dood, in
hái is bheer vo ndən. 25 in s'n óu•dstə socen bhas in -t reld, in tun dii dikht bái ню'is kbhanı, нoord i zi'qən in sрœœ:lən. 27 Јə bruur. 29 dat ik mit m'n vri'ndə ər-s vroo lik bhee'zə mokht. 31 kind, sái bi•nə a•ltáid bái mee.
[On the word (bock) for Duteh buik (bo'ik), Winkler remarks that long (yy) and (ii) were anciently common all over Holland, as at present in Zeeland, West Flanders, Friesland and most other Netherland prorinces. Only Holland, Brabant, and East Flanders have changed long $u=(\mathrm{yy})$ into $u i=$ ( $\infty^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ ), and long $i=$ (ii) into $i j=\left(\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{i}\right)$, which Winkler identifies with (éi). See ( $1292 a$ '). "But even in Holland the old pronunciation is not thoroughly extinct. Some words, as duvel, duzend, iverig, are pronounced with (yy, ii) by almost all Hollanders, even townsmen, and those who speak so-called 'fashionable' fatsoendelijk Hollandish. But in some Holland dialects the sounds sink to an intermediate sound, as buk (bock) rather than buik or buuk (be'ik, byyk), and dik (dik, de ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}$ ), rather than dijk or diik (da'ik, diik), and this is the case at Bemingbroek." In spee. 105 these are apparently rather $(\partial z, i i)$. All this confirms what was said on page 295.]
105. Enkhuizen, town (52n42, $5 e 17$ ). II. 45 .

11 dər bhoo ndo arghəns'n man di argh riik bhas on dii tbhee zœoms ad. 12 әn i dee ldə z'n ghuud o'ndər 'rlœ'i'. 15 om op də va'rkəns op tə parsə. 18 vaa•dər 'k eb zo ndighd tœœe.ghən Jóu. 22 aa•lt 't be'stə pak klee'rə r's iir, an lææt ["sounds as long $e$ with a slight inclination to $a$; this sound is not easy to describe, and is very peculiar"] -әt -әm a•nduun, on gheef-əm-on riq an z'n and, ən skuu'nə an z'n bii•ıә. 23 't ve'ta kalf. 24 bhant dœe» zə miin zœe๓n bhas dəod ["a sound between Friesian $o a$ and ooa ( $0^{\prime}$, oo'? ), the Netherland boom (boom :) a tree, and the Netherland bot (bot, bat ?)"], on is vorndon. 25 әn z'n ón'sto zœcen bhas in-t veld, an duu dii bhrom kbham, on kort bi aəs bhas oo red $\mathrm{ii}-\mathrm{t}$ ghaza $q$ an-t da•usa. 27 Jə bruur. 29 dat 'k oak or-s mit m'n ma-korz ['mates'] pret e-bo kon. 31 kind, ji bint a•ltiid bii mii.
[On (az, ii), see note on spec. 104.]
106. Hoorn, town (52 n 36, $5 e 4)$. II. 47.
[As a workman would relate the parable to his childreu.]

11 dər bhas ərs 'n e•regh ra'ik нее dii thhee zœons uad. 12 m tat, Ја mo'sta mə'in mə muu'dars bebha'i'z ghee'vo. 15 op z'n rarkens in-t land to pa•so. 18 taat, zo ndighd нeb ik, voor Јón. 22 steekt Јə'iléí• di Јо`qə dər's gháu ferm in də pleセnsə ['clothing'] dat ii-r bheer kadree ['smart'] w'i'tzii't. 23 't ve'ta ka'lef. 24 bhant mə su'qə bhas zoo ghuud as dood maar nón kan $a \cdot$ les nogh bheer in-t $e \cdot f o$ ko *mə. 25 maar nón də óu•dstə zœeœеп dii kbham-t нюe'is van-t land on dii ноо 'rdo dat labhái [' uproar,' row, used in all Dutch dialects] on dii zagh dat spektaa-kal. 27 z'n bruur. 29 dat ik m'n éi oghə mit шә kameraa'ts verdii•vərtee'rə kon. 31 Јо•qə, Jə’i
 mee.
107. Urk, island (52n40,5e37). II. 54 .

11 daar bhas ar-s 'n man, in dii $a \cdot d ə$ thhii zyyns. 12 in z'n taA ta dii' lda 't ghund, ən ghaf 'm z'n part. 15 om op da rarkas to parson. 18 tas ${ }^{\text {ta }}$, ik $æ v$ əzoe ndighd tyy-ghən Juu. 22 briq iir daA delik 't be'sto klii'd, in trek-ət-əm an, in ghii'f-əm-ən riq an z'n aand, in skhum'nən an z'n bii nen. 23 't ghəme'stə kalf. 24 bhant m'n zyyn bhas dood, in ii is bheer əvun'nden. 25 in d-óu•dstə zyyn bhas in -t laand, in duu a'i kort ba'i -t œeos kbham, oord ii -t ghəsa $\cdot q$ in -t ghədans. 27 Јə bryyr. 29 dat ik mit m'n rri'ndən ok or-s vrœeelik bhee za mokht. 31 keend, si bi'nən o'mars arltoos ba'i m'n. ["Long $a$ has four sounds, as long o in goon, stoon (oo); as oa (AA) in doar, toate; as pure a (aa) in dagen, maak; and finallyas a (ææ) in mexer, wecerdig, etc." Although initial $h$ is omitted, it is not unduly inserted.]
108. Marken, island (52 n 27, $5 e 8$ ). II. 58.

11 dər bhas-as 'n man, on dii ad tbhee zœo๓ns. 12 әn $\theta^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ vardee $\cdot \mathrm{ld} \theta$ 't ghuud. 15 om op da verkans ta pa'son. 18 taa, ik ebh ozóu•ndighd twee ghən Jóu. 22 briqt iir ghayk ['quickly'] 'n bas ['beautiful,' old Friesian bask] kleed, on trekt-ət-əm an, on gheeft'n riq an z'u æend, on skhuu'non an z'n biifnon. 23 't ghame'stakalf. 24 bhant m'n zœœn bhas dood, an a'i is avón'ndən. 25 en z'n óursto zocen bhas op-t leerend on tuun ə'i dikht boi ce'is kam, oordo a'i -t ghəza'q on-t ghada'us. 27 јэ bruur.

29 om mit m'n maats $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { r-s rroollik to }\end{aligned}$ bhee'zo. 31 ko'ind, Јə'i bi'nə a'lta'id ba'i mo.
109. Molijsloot, village, near Buiksloot, villago ( $52 n 24,4 e 55$ ). II. 62.

11 deer bhas ər-s'n man dii tbhee
 vaa dor z'n ghuud. 15 om de rarkis ta dra'i va ['drive,' Dutch]. 18 vaa -dər, ik neb azo'ndighd tæee'ghə sóu. 22 breq do be'sta klee•ra нiir, on trek-om dii an, on gheef-əm-ən riq an z'n нand, өn skhuu'nə an z'n bii•nə. 23 't ve'to
 bhas aster rva, on is bheer avo nda. 25 ən z'n óu'sto zœœn bhas in-t land on tuu dii deer e'it ghoq, an dikht ba'i нœ'is kbham, ноо $\frac{\mathrm{r}}{}$ dən ii-t ghəza $q$ ən də myyzii k. 27 Јə bruur. 29 om met me ka'moraa's or-s pret to нóu'a ['hold']. 31 zœœen, Ja'i bent a•lta'id ba'i mə.
110. Zaankant or coast about Zaandam, in English Saardam, town ( $52 n 26,4$ e 49). II. 65.

11 dər bhas 'r's'n man, on dii had tbhee zœœens. 12 әn də vaa dər dee-ldə-n-t ghuud. 15 œm œep də varakəs tə pa'sa. 18 vaa'dar, ' $k$ неv aso ndighd tœœ"ghə Jóu. 22 наal a•nstons ['at the hour,' immediately] 't móoi sto kleed, on duu-m dat an ; steek-ən riq an $z$ 'n Hand, on trek skuu'na an z'n vuu'ta. 23 't me'sta kal'f. 24 bhant dœeœ'ze zœœen van mee bhas astor'rva, әn is әүo•nda. 25 ən də ón'sta zœ巛е bhas in -t veld әn duu ii -t нa'is kwam [" the ui of huis, ete., is nearly between ai (ái) and oi (ói)"'], нoorda ii -t zi $\cdot$ qə on-t da•nsə. 27 Jə bruur. 29 œm mit ma rri•ndə bhet pláizii•r ta не'va. 31 kind, sa'i bint o.mars ala dagh baí mee.
111. Heemskerk, village ( $52 n 30$, $4 e 41$ ). II. 68.

11 dər bhas réis ' $n$ man met tbhee zocens. 12 ən da vaa dar dee -t. 15 om op da varəkəə ta pa•sən. 18 vaa dor, ik heb ghazo ndighd toee gha sou. 22 breq uiir 't be'sto pak, trek-t-əm an, gheet-am-an riq an z'n víqar, on trek-om skhuu'nen an z'n bii $\cdot n \neq n$. 23 't ve'ta kalf. 24 bhant docerzo zœœn van mee bhas doo'd, on ik heb 'm bheer akree'ghon. 25 z'n óu-sta zœocn bhas in -t veld, on tuu i ba'i нoqk ['home,' a good Friesian word, in full use in Friesland] kbham,

1100 rden ii-t zi'qən әn da•nsən. 27 so bruur. 29 dat ik met mə rriंndə vroo lik kon bhee'zo. 31 kind, so bin a•lto'id ba'i mee.
112. Egmond aan Zee, village (52n36, $4 e 38$ ). II. 71 .

11 deer bhas ' $n$ man dii $a \cdot d o$ tbhii zee'nə. 12 нen ái dee'ldə z'n ghuud - 'qar [Duteh onder 'among'] dərlói [for heurlui, Duteh hunlieden, literally them people]. 15 ном нор də va rkəns to pa•so. 18 taat, нik ee•bhə zo.qdighd tee•gho Jóu. 22 breq prakhktái• ['immediately,' a word in daily use among the Egmond fishermen, of unknown origin] 't zi•ndaghso pak ['Sunday's pack'], нәn trekt 't im an, нәп gheef-im-on riq, an z'n aqd [' hand'], нәn skuu'nə an z'n bii nə. 23 't ghəmee-sta kalf. 24 bhaqt mə zeen bhas dood, нәn ái нis bheer әvo'qə ['found']. 25 нәп z'n óu sta zeen bhas in-t laqd, нәn tuu ái bái 't óis kbham, oo rd ái rái•kəla'ik zi'qə ən da'qsə. 27 ง๐ bruwr. 29 nom ris mit mə ma'kərs blaid to bhee za. 31 kind, Jái ben a-ltáid bái mee.
113. Zandvoort, village (52n23, $4 e 32$ ). II. 74 .

11 dar bhas əréi•s 'n man, on dii had tbhii zœœens. 12 on tun ghaf do vææ•dər-əm z'n por-sii, on liit 'm ghææn. 15 Jæ, bhái [' yes, feed'] ma varkes mæær. 18 veæ dər, ik нeb azo ndighd tæœ'ghə Jóu. 22 Hææl də be'stə plœe•nJə, on duut-əm dii an, ən gheef-əm-ən riq an $z \times n$ наnd, on skhuu'na an $z$ 'n bii nə. 23 't ve'to kalf. 24 bhant mo zœœn bhas dood, an is bero'm [Dutch uederom 'again'] ako'm. 25 an z'n óu'sta zœeœn bhas in-t veld, on tuu dii nææ нóis kbham, ноo rdan ii al in da vorta 't zi'qa. on-t spri qə. 27 Јə free ra. 29 om mit ma vrionda vroo lik ta bhee'zo. 31 kind, sái bent a-ltáid bái mee.
[On the west coast of Holland generally, long $a$ is (ææ), $e i$ and $i$ are (áai, ái), $u i$ is ( $\left.\mathbf{\sigma}_{1}, o^{\prime} \mathrm{i}\right)$, close $e$ is (ii); $h$ is usually left out and put in exaetly contrariwise, but this is not so in Zandvoort.]
114. Irarlem, city (52 $n 23$, 4 e 38). II. 79.
["The present mode of speech in Haarlem is undoubtedly that which, of all used in the province of IIolland, and hence in the Netherlands, approaches nearest to the genuine Netherlandish;
it is nearest to the present literary language. Genuine Haarlemish, as far as it exists, is certainly not spoken by more than half the inhabitants; the other half, including many strangers, speak modern Hollandish." The $g$ is very strongly guttural, and $l$ and $n$ final cause the insertion of (i) before, and (a) after, the preceding short rowel, as (khio'ə $\cdot$ ldə) for gulden (gho-ldon). Both the specimens 114 and 115 are dated, August 1870.]

11 dar bhas əréisii's ['there-onceonce,' a repetition] 'n man, on dii наd tbhee zoons. 12 ən də vaa'dər vərdee' 1 Idə z'n buu-ltshə [or (buu •ltja)] ən khaf-am z'n porsii. 15 om z'n vo rakes to bhéiə. 18 raa•dər, ' $k$ нер khəzo•ndikht tee:ghə Jóu. 22 breq mө réis kháu ['quickly'] mə be‘stə Jas [=lias,' bundle,' a Dutch French word] Hiir, on duu-m dii an, on duu-n riq an z'n Hand, ən skbuu-nə an z'n béei'nə. 23 't vet khemi•stə ka•l'f. 24 bhant me zoon bhas dood, on nóu is-t-i khəvo•ndə. 25 ən z'n óu'sta zoon bhas op 't land, on tuu dii dikht ba'i 't нœ' is kbham, ноо $\mathbf{r d}$ ən ii-t khəza $q$ дn-t khəda'ns. 27 Јә bruur. 29 om-s-ən fee'si ['feast'] mit mə vri''nda ta нe'bə. 31 bhiél ['well'] ro•qจ, งə'i bent a•lta'id ba'i mee.

## 115. Haarlem, see specimen

 114. II. 82.["Modern IIollandish," that is, literary Dutch, called "of course almost exclusively in the province of Holland the polite (beschaafde) pronunciation of Netherlandish." See pp. 1292, and 1377, $e^{\prime}$.]
11 ii•mand нad tbhee zoons. 12 ən tuu vordee lda do vaa dar z'n ghuud. 15 om də varkes tə bhéi'ə. 18 vaa'dər, ik нeb ghozo ndighd tee-ghən yy. [(yy) is a contraction for (yy ee), still used by ladies' maids, and that a contraction for (yy ee'dole) uw edele, 'your nobility;' gij (gha'i) is used in writing.] 22 breq-s ghóu -t besta pak klee'rə нiir, on duu-m dat an, on duu-n riq an z'n наnd, әn skhuu'nə an z'n vun'tə. 23 't ghome'sta kalf. 24 bhant m'n zoon bhas dood, an ii is bheer ghevo-ndo. 25 də óuste zoon bhas op't veld, ən tuun i dikht ba'i noc'is kbham, noo rdo нә’i -t ghəza•q ən-t ghəda•ns. 27 уу bruur. 29 om-s met mo vri.ndə feest to ke na viir ra ['celebrate ']. 31 m 'n jo 'qən, see bent i•mərs a'lta'id bo'i mee.
116. Amsterdam, city (52n22, 4 e 53). II. 93.
[The better classes speak literary Dutch, small tradesmen and journeymen still speak Amsterdamish, which was original Friesian; in the xıy th and xv th centuries it was still half Friesian ; in the xyith and beginning of the xvirth it agreed most closely with the speech of Leeuwarden, specimen 91 ; and Winkler thinks that old Amsterdamish is nearer to Friesian than the present Friesian itself, and refers to the verses of Gijsbrand Adriaenszen Bredero for proofs. The "watering" of its spirit began in the latter part of the xvis th century, and now barely half of the genuine Amsterdamers speak Amsterdamish. "Busy intercourse with fellow-countrymen and strangers, improved education, greater wish to read, and above all fashion, which rejects all that is original, or that is inherited, has made old Amsterdamish what it is." Winkler recognises at present nineteen varieties of Amsterdamish, and gives as the following specimen, the Kalverstraatish, or speech of Kalver Street, which runs South from the Palace; this mode of speech is spoken in parts which are "zeer fatsoendelijk" (very fashionable), and is corrupted by "elegante expressies" (elegant expressions) ; but by old gentlemen, born and bred in the Heeregracht and Keizergracht, it is still spoken purely. Modern inhabitants of Kalver Street speak Frankish, High German, Italian, Flemish or Brabantish, or Jewish and modern Hollandish.]

11 dər bhas-əréisii's 'n man-ən [the hyphens are here all in the original, and shew rather a different union of words from that used in English] dii наt tbhce zoons. 12 әп нә'i ghaf 'm zoovee 1 -as om tuu kbham. 15 ghaa mar na bœ'i•ta-n-op mə lant, tan kéi-Jop ['then can ye upon'] ma varekes pa•sョ. 18 okh-ik нер ghəzo ndight tøo๐•ghə-n-yy'ee. 22 ıtaal Јə'i réis-as-to-bhint m'n zo-ndaghso rok niir-ən trek 'm dii-J-an-ən gheef 'm-as 'n fatsur udelik mans kind ['as a fashionable man's child ']'n riq-an z'n vi•qər; -әn Ja, skhuu-nə mot-i-J-ook-an ne 'ba! zegh! breq ma be-stə nyy•ə ma'r mee-J-ən dun 'm dii-J-an z'll vun'ta. 23 't ghome'sta ka lef. 24 bhant mo zoon bhas zoo ghuut-as doot-an ' $k$ web ' $m$ bheero'm ghavo'nda. 25 on d óu'sta
zoon bli＇stə－r nogh niks nii mondal van，bhant нә＇i bhas net niit＇t no＇is， ma＇r tuu＇u－i na nce＇is kbham，Hoordə－ n－i dat－r braaf ghozo qə－n－ən ghəda nst bliiir－an dat－to vioo－l ghiq． 27 yyes bruur． 29 om＇u vri ndomaaltsha［or （－tso）］met m＇n ke niso to nou＇bhว． 31 kind，zéi do vaa dar tun，neb－so－n－t niit－álo daaghə vol－op bo＇i mee ghəна＇t？
117．Laren，village（52 $n 15$ ， 5 e 13）．II． 98.

11 ＇n zee＇kər mins a＇da tbhee zœœens． 12 әn ə＇i dee．ldə нœn＇t ghood． 15 om do varkes tə Hœœ厄ən． 18 vaa $\cdot$ dər，ik eb azœ ndighd tæe ghən Jóu． 22 breq ghóu－t be＇sta kleed iir，an doo－t œm an，on gheef om－ən riq an z＇n aqd，on skhoo＇non an z＇n bee＇nan． 23 ＇t ve＇ta kalf． 24 bhant dii zœœn van mee bhas dood，on is əvo．qdən． 25 z ＇n on＇stə zœœе bhas op－t veld，an too a＇i kbham ən kort ba＇i œé＇is kbham，oo rda нә＇і ghəzi $\cdot q$ әn ghəda $q$ qs． 27 Јə brœœer． 29 om met m＇n vri－nden is rroolik to bhee＇zan． 31 ka＇ind，sə＇i bin alta＇id ba＇i mee．

118．Huizen，village（52 $n$ 18， 5 e 14）．II． 102.

11 ＇n mins наd tbhee zœœ＇nən． 12 әп нә＇i dee ld z ＇n ghuud． 15 om də varkans to bhéi＇ən． 18 vaa dor， ik нeb әzœ＇ndighd tæœ ghən Jóu． 22 briq daa－lak＇t be＇sta pak on dóou－t нœm an，gheef－әm－әn riq an z＇n наqd， әn skhoo＇nən an z＇n bee＇nən． $23^{\text {＇}}$ t ve＇ta kalf． 24 waqt dœeœ＇zә zœœи van mee bhas doo＇d，on is әvo qdon． 25 ən do óu－sto zœœn bhas op－t laqd， on too＇．нii dikht ba＇i нœ＇is kbham， zagh нii＇n ghroo＇ta vara qqeriq［Dutch verandering，＇change＇］；zэ zo•qən， spœœゃ・ldon ən da $\cdot q$ stan． 27 зə brœœer． 29 om met m＇n vri•ndon vroo＇lik to bhee＇zan． 31 kə＇ind，sə＇i bint a＇ltə＇id bə＇i mee．

XXVI．Zuid－Holland，in English Province of South Hol－ Land．II． 105.
119．Woubrugge，village（52n10， 4 e 37）．II． 106.

11 dor bhas arasii－s＇n man dii tbhee zocons nad． 12 on d－óu•ə man ver－ deceldon z＇n gheld on ghund． 15 om də varkes to húvi• эən． 18 vaa dor， ik neb azo－ndighd toecoghə Jóu． 22 breq＇s gháu－t zœ’ndaghskha ghuud wiir a trekt－ot－əm an，ən steek－ən riq
an z＇n ri•qər，an trek－əm skhuu＇nən an． 23 ＇t re＇to kalf． 24 bhant dœeœ＇za zocen van mee bhas dóoud ［＂long $o$ with the accent，and a faint aftersound of ou＇＂］an ik heb＇m bheer әvo＇nd． 25 záin ón＇stə zoen bhas ＇t land in aghaa $n$ ，on tm dii bheer op нœ＇is an ghoq，әn op do bhœerf［Dutch werf，＇whari，＇homestead］，Hoordə нái zə zi•qən on da nson． 29 om met mo kamoraa＇s skhik to нe．bo． 31 kind，Jái bent 0 －mərs $a \cdot l$ táid bái mee．

120．Leiden，city（52 n 10， $4 e 30$ ）．II． 111.
［＂The speech of Leiden is undoubt－ edly by far the ugliest（de leelijkste）， most unpleasant，and most countrified （platst）sounding in all Holland．＂ The open country is said to be plat， ＇flat，＇in contradistinction to the town， so that when those who speak Low－ that is Lowland－German，talk of a plat pronunciation，they mean one which prevails in the country，which is so flat that the plain is not even broken by a collection of houses！All the terms high，low，flat，upper，applied to German，have reference to the con－ formation of the country，like Lowland and Highland applied to Scotch．The educated speak literary Dutch．］．

11 dor bhas eri－s＇in man dii tbhee zœœ•nə наd． 12 on tuu déi lda də vaa•dər z＇n ghuud mit ərlóy［＂the diphthong $u i$ is not pure oi（ói），but has something of the ou sound，＂and Winkler writes oui，which I interpret （óy）］． 15 om op da varakes ta pa＇sa． 18 vaa•dər ik eb zo•ndo ghadaa＇n téi ghə sou． 22 нaal əri•s gháu－t sœ－ndasə pak，ən trek－ət－əm an，әn stéik＇n ghóu＇ə riq an z＇n vi－qər，on trek－əm skhuu＇nə an z＇n vuu＇ta． 23 ＇t ghəme＇sta ka•laf． 24 want dœoc＇za zœœе ran mee bhas dóoud，ən нáai is bhéir trre．gh gharo•nda．［The（éi， aai）are here separated，according as Winkler writes ei，ai，but he says $c i$ and $i j$ are not pure $a i$ ，but are some－ what prolonged，as $a-a i]$.25 әn da man z＇n ón＇sta zoceen bhas op＇t land， an tuu dii ghadaa•n ad mit bhe raka， an naa нóys ghoq an dikht báai нóys kbham，ноo rdan ii dat zo zo q．${ }^{\circ}$ on da nenta． 27 зә bruur． 29 om mi nıa ［＇with my＇］kameraa＇s vrboi alik to bhéìza． 31 Јо，Jáai bint a•ltáaid báai máain．

121．Iratwijk aan Zee，village （52n 12，4e23）．II． 122.

11 dor bhas əri's'n man, dii thhee ло qәs нái, də iin 'и рæær лææ•rtshəs [or (tıas)] au-ər ['older'] as d-a ndor. 12 in tuu dee'.ldə də vaer'dər z'n gheld in ghuud, in ghaf 'm z'n porsii [or (porsjə)]. 15 om də varkas to
 dighd toec.ghə sóu. 22 нæее әri's ghóu-t móo'istə pak kleera, in trek-әt-om an, in gheef-om-ən riq an z'n vi qar, in skuu nə an z'n biínə. 23 't ve'to kalf. 24 bhant dœœ'zo zœœен van mee bhas doo'd, in nán he bə bhee-m bheer əvo•ndə. 25 də áu•sta zeom bhas in-t veld, in tuu dii-t нœ'is kbham, ноо $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$-ii-t zi-qon in-t da•nsan. 27 Jáu bruur. 29 dat ik mit mo kaməraa's ori's vroe'lik kon bhee»ə. 31 mə so $\circ$ q, Jái bint a•ltáid bái mee.
122. Seheveningen, village (52n 16, 4e 16). II. 126.

11 dor bhas əri•s- 'n man, on dii ad tbhii zocens. 12 ən z'n vææ'dər dee'lda da buml of voor zeren [' him,' Dutch zijn, properly 'his'] on z'n bruur. $15 \mathrm{om} z^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ ra•rəkes to úvi'so [remnant of hooden (hum•dan)]. 18 veer•dər, ik ebh əzæ•ndighd toce ghə งóu. 22 laq dææ dalik 't be'sta ghund, on dunt-om dat an, on duu-n riq an z'n and on gheef om skhuu'nə an $z^{\prime} n$ bii'nə. 23 't əme'stə ka'l'f. 24 bhant dœœ'zə zoœn van mee bhas doo'd [written doad, and said to be the "Friesian and English oa in boat," the former is (óa, $0^{\prime}, ~ o o^{\prime}$ ), the latter is certainly not so in lettered English], on ii is bhəəro'm əko mə. 25 on də man z'n ón'sto zocœen dii bhas op 't laud, әn tuu dii пææ œœ๐ [' house'] ghiq, oo'rdə-n-ii zə zíqๆ ən da'nsə. 27 Јə bruur. 29 om mit ma kamərexes ari-s rroo' lik to bhee 'za. 31 Jóoi [' young one'], sa'i ben a-ltáid bái mee.
123. 's Gravenhage, in English the Hague, city ( $52 n 3,4$ e 18). II. 131.

11 dər bhas əri's 'n man, on dii nad tbhe'í zaano. 12 on tun de'ildo də vaah dər z'n ghund o•ndə нə'ilii. 15 om də varokes to нúui•əə. 18 raahdər, ik нер ghazo $n$ nighd toce.ghən yy. 22 breq нiir ris ghâu-t be ste kle'id on dmut-ət-əm an, on ghe'ilt-əm-ən riq an z'n наnd, on skhuu'no an z's vur'to. 23 't ghome'sta ka-l'f. 24 bhant dœcerza zaAn van mee bhas daad, on nóu uee-m-əm toroc.gh ghəvo ndə. 25 әn z'n óu•sta zaan bhas in 't veld, on
tun dii kbham on dikht bee-t naz'is bhas, ноо rdo-n-ii-t ghəza*q on-t ghada ns. 27 Јə bruur. 29 om dər met mə vi'nda vraa lik max'i ta bhee'za. 31 m'n kind, jee bin a-ltoes bee m'n.
[" $e$ and $o$ are very broad ; $e$ comes near ai, and o near ao (As). ci, ui, ou, $i j$, are close and pinched (benepens) ; ei, $i j$, are almost long French $\grave{e}$; $u i$ is eui with second eu in French heureusement, and $o u$ is very near oe (un)." In the text I have followed his spelling, where I have used ( $x$ 'i) to express in " imperfect, obscure" ai, becanse he says that where it stands for $e$ long, it must not be spoken "perfect" nor "too clearly," and that long a "approaches the bleating $a$ (æx)," which I have represented by (ah).]
124. 's Gravesande, village (51 $n 59,4 e$ 10). II. 134.

11 dor bhas is 'n man dii tbhee zœens had. 12 en op 't la-qo lest ['at the long last'], doeor z'n zani•ko on dréina mos z'n vaa•dar bhel tuughee'vo, ən zoo kreegh-d-i z'n zin ['he got his mind,' got what he wanted]. 15 om də va'rkəs tə пúui่งə. 18 vaa dar, ik нeb mə ergh slekht toeæ•ghə see ghedraa gho. 22 breq in 'n o'məzii•ntsha [or (-tлə)] də be'sto klee•rə dii Јə vi•ndə ken, әn duи $z$-วш an, ən gheef-əm-ən gh6u•ә riq an z'n vi'qor on skhmo no an $z$ 'n vuu'to. $23^{\text {' }}$ 't ve'tghame'sta kalf. 24 bhant dœœ'zə zooen van mee bhas dood, an nóu is-t-i bliro mm ghavo.nd. 25 tuu dat zoo plaas mad, bhas don óu sto zown in't veld, on tun dii van 't land kbhan, on dilkht bo'i ню 'is bhas, ноо rdə-n-ii-t ghaza $\cdot q$ әп-t ghəda'ns. 27 Јә bruur. 29 dat ik mi mo vriondo ris vroo-lik mokh ['might'] bhee'za. 31 okh, mo kind, see ben o'mars a-lta'id ba'i mee.

## 125. Groot-Ammers, village

 (51 $n 54,4$ e 49). II. 138.11 dor bhas-as 'n man on dii mad tbhee zuœens. 12 on də vaa'dar dee•lda-n-ər-t ghnuad. 15 om da ve’rkons to нúui•’on. 18 vaa dar, $\mathbf{i k}$ nee ghozo ndighd tœeゃ.ghon Jóu. 22 breq mə m'n Jeesto kiverro, ən dun zo-m an, on gheef-on riq an z'n nand, on skhuu no an z'n vun'to. 23 't ve'to kali. 24 bhant m'n zocen niir bhas dood, an mii is ghavo nda. 25 də man z'n óu-sta zoocen bhas op 't veld, on tuun nii bii 't nyys kblam, noordo nii -t ghoza•q on ghoda'ns. 27 Јə
bruur． 29 om mit ma rri•nde vroo lik to bhee＇za． 31 kind，see bint a．ltiid bii mee．

126．Gorinchem，town（51n49， $4 e 59)$ ．Il． 140.

11 darr blas is no man mi theee zoons． 12 on tun dee．lda da vaA dor $z \cdot n$ ghuud． 15 om op da verakes to pa＇so． 18 raAdar＇$k$ heb zoo slekht ghelec ft dat＇t skia ndə－n－is vœœer Jóu． 22 hatl is ghán，zee i，＇t móoisto kleed，on trek－at－om is［＇once＇］ann， on－әn riq mot i atan z＇n hand ne＇bo， on duut－əm skhuu $\quad$ non ok aAn $z^{\prime \prime} n$ vun＇ta． 23 ＇t ve＇ta kalf． 24 omdaa－ mənว－so qon op d＇n hol bhas ghaghan ［＇had gone to the hole，＇as it were＇to the bottom，＇the word hol is very idiomati－ cally used in Duteh］，an nóu bheer boo vo waa＇tor is［＇and is now above water again＇］；－нa＇i bhas op－ənən dbhas＇l－ bhegh［＇lost path＇］，au ii is bheer to rekht． 25 nóu bhas d＇n óu＇stə Jo＊qə net［＇exactly＇］op＇t land，on tum i nas но＇is tun kbham，dokh ii［＇thought he＇］：bha ноor－k vœœœr－әn ghəzi•q an－on ghada ns？ 27 Јə bryyr． 29 om is mi m＇n vrionda ta smœ＇la［Dutch ＇feast，＇gormandise］ 31 jo qoskə，Jee bent o＇mars a．lta＇i ba＇i mee．

127．Rotterdam，city（ $51 n 55$ ， $4 e 29$ ）．II． 145.

11 dər bhas iis＇n man dii tbhee zœœиs наd． 12 in da vaa dor ghaaf－ am z＇n porsii． 15 om da varakes op ta pa＇sa． 22 naal ma iis gháu də be＇stə klee ren $\propto^{\prime}$ it－ $\begin{gathered}\text { kast，in duut－əm dii an；} \\ \text { d }\end{gathered}$ gheef－əm－ən riq an $z$＇n viqar，in skhuu no an z＇n vuu＇ta． 23 ＇t ve＇to kalf． 24 bhant ma zocoen dii－k dokh ［＇thought＇］dat dood bhas，heb ik bheero m ghavo nda． 25 tun zә nóu braaf an da ghaq bhaa ra，kbham do ólsta zoern dii van＇t ghava－l nogh niit on［this（on）is a mere expletive associated with niit）］bhist，in i noordo zə zi•qən in da＇nsən． 27 ла bruur． 29 dat－i［that he，the words are re－ ported in the third person］roor nœm of $z$＇n vri＇ndə nogh nóoit zoo ex＇itghe－ наа ld［＇fetehed out＇］наd． 31 kind， see bint $\propto \times$ mors bx＇i mee．
［＂The sound ai must not be pro－ nounced too broadly（colmondig），it is intermediate between ei and ai；the orthography $\ddot{a}$ ，with high German $\ddot{a}$ ， comes nearest to the sound．＂Hence $m y$（ $x$＇i）．Compare the note on（ $x$＇i） at the end of specimen 123．］

128．Flaardingen，city（51n54， $4 e 21$ ）．II 150.

11 dor bhas oréi＇s＇n man，in dii ad tbhee zeœ 113.12 in tuun deceldan－ ii－t． 15 om da varakes to úui $\cdot \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ n ［remuant of（нœœ $\cdot$ don）］． 18 vere dor， ik eb azo ndighd tocec ghon Jón． 22 æælt Jollii－m＇n be＇stə kleerro－s iir，in duut－am dii an，in steekt－an ra＇iq an z＇n and，in gheef－am skhuu＇nan an z＇u vuu＇ta． 23 ＇t ghome sto ka－ll＇f． 24 bhant deœ＇zo zoœ⿱㇒日勺心 van mee blas doo＇d，in ii is əvo nde． 25 z＇11 óu＇sto zocen bhas in－t veld；in tuu dii kbham in dikht ba＇i z＇n vææ dorz œ＇is kbham，oo rdan－ii－t za＇i•qon in－t da nsen． 27 Јэ bruur． 29 om mit m＇n vri＇nda vroo lik to bhee． 31 ka＇ind， jai ben o＇mərs a＇Ita＇id ba＇i mee．

129．Dordrecht，in English Dort，eity（ $51 n 49,4 e 41$ ）．II． 154.

11 dar bhas œes no man，on dii had tbhee＇zœœns． 12 an tuu ghaf da vaa＇dor－om z＇n zin［＇mind＇］ən də zoeøn kreegh də нe－laf． 15 om op da ve＇rkəns to pa＇sə． 18 vaa•dər，＇k нсb ghazo ndigh toco．ghan JY． 22 нaalt da be＇sta klee ra，trekt－am dii an，dmit nə riq an z＇n hand，on skhuurnə an z＇n vuuta． 23 ＇t ghəme＇sta ka：lef． 24 bhant нiir нәb Јee mənən－zœœпn dii bhee do khto dat doo＇d bhas，on ii is bheer ghavo nda． 25 də óu＇sta zœœœn dii op－t veld an－t ar－abéi $\cdot \boldsymbol{n}$［＇work＇］ bhas，bhas in－t ghoнеe－l［＇altogether＇］ niit in z＇n skhik［＇delight＇］tuun－d－i dikh ba＇i＇t нюc＇is kbham，әn－t ghəza＇q әn－t ghada•ns ноordд． 29 om met mı vri＇nda mroo lik ta bhee zon． 31 kind， see bint $a^{-} \operatorname{lt}$＇id ba＇i mee ghabhee st．

## 130．Oud－Bcierland，village

 （ $51 n 48,4$ e 55）．II． 157.11 dæær bhas ris＇n man，an dii наd tbhee zocens． 12 ən tun dee－lda da vaa der z＇n ghund． 15 om da varkons to bhái $\cdot 18$ vaa dor，ik heb ghazo n－ dighd tee ghon sóu． 22 breqt ris gháu m＇n be＇sta sperla voor don dagh， an duut za－m an；gheeft ook－on ric an z＇n Hand，an skhuu＇na an z＇n vuu ta． 23 ＇t gheme＇sta ka－l＇f． 24 bhant dœce＇zo zocen van me bhas dood，en is ghəvo qa． 25 an də man z＇ll óu＇sta zeown bhas in－t veld，on tuu dii kbham әn dikht ba＇i нóis kbham，tuu 100 ＇rdon ii－t zi quan on darisən． 27 јə bruur． 29 dat ik mit m＇n vri．ndon ook ris vroo－lik mokh bhee＇za． 31 kiud，sai bin a lltoos be＇i ma＇in．
131. Brielle, or den Briel, town (51 $n 53,40 e 10$ ). II. 160.

11 dar bhas is ' $n$ man [(main) in country Briellish], dii nad tbhee zoo'no. 12 әи нә'i vardee-lda -t ghnud o'ndər нoelii- [Dutch hunlieden, 'them'] béi•ə ['both ']. 15 op də varəkes to paso. 18 vaa dor, ik neb zo'ndo ghedaa'n tee-ghə Jón. 22 breq 't be sto kleed нiir on duut-t-om an, duut-om-an riq an z'n ri•qər, әn skhuu'nə an z'n vullta. 23 't ve'tghome'sta kia•l'f. 24 bhant mo zoon dii bhas dood, on nóu is-t-i ghevo'ndə. $2 \overline{5}$ an də man z'n Gu'sta zoon dii bhas op 't land, on tuu-d-i dœekhto bə'i -t нóis kbham, Hoo rdii da [contracted form of (Hoo $\%$ -dən-ii), used in Brielle] 't zi•qən ən-t da'nsə. 27 лә bruur. 29 om met me kameraado is loget [leut, leute, is in general use in Belgium and Zeeland for great pleasure, unbounded enjoyment, dolle pret 'mad frolic,' and plays the part of the Friesian 2ol. Brielle is the northern limit of leut and southern of $l o l$. In Flanders a merry witty man is called lentegaard. Compare high German leutselig, social, attable] to keno не• bə. 31 kind, леe bin a•ltáid bə'i mee.
132. De Tinte, hamlet of Oostvoorne, village ( 51 n 54,4 e 6 ). II. 163.

11 dæær bhas is 'n man dii tbhe' zœœ等z had. 12 en də vaa dor dee-t. 15 om de varkas to bhéi•on. 18 vaA•dər, ik неb kbhææd ghədææ•n tee-ghon róu. 22 breq dææ•dalik 't be-sta kleéad hiir, on trek-ət-əm an, on duu-n riq an $z$ 'n наnd, on skhuu'nen an z'u bee'ə non. $23^{\prime}$ 't ghome'sto kalf. 24 bhant dœœ"\%ə zoe๓n van mee bhas daAd, on is ghovo ndo. 25 an z'n óu'sta zocon bhas in 't land, on tuı dii kort ba'i нууs kbhiim, ноо-ron-d-ii zi'qən on da'usən. 27 Ја bruur. 29 mm is vroo lik to bhee'zo mit m'n kamoras's. 31 kiind, see bint a-ltiid ba'i mee.
[The sound ( E ') is said to be "peeuliar, but nearly the same as the Friesian $e a$, " and in (EE'a) there is " the same sound, followed by an unaccented $e$, so that it is an evident diphthong.' ']
133. Nienve Tonge, village ( $51 n 43,4 e$ 10). II. 167.

11 dor bhas os 'n man, in dii nad thhee' zococns. 12 in tuu dee' ldon-i naar z'n ghuut. 150 m do verkes to bha-khtan ['watch']. 18 vai'dor, 'k наa•bhə ghezo ndighd teeghon suu.

22 briiqt is gháu-* be sto klee'd niir, in dunt-t-om an, in gheeft-om-an riiqk an z'n Hand, in skhuw'nən an $z$ n vuu'ton. 23 't ghame'sta kalf. 24 bhant dee zo zoce'no van mee bhas doo'd in ii is ghavo'ndo. 25 z'n onsto zocoe'ne bhas in-t veld, in tuun 'n kbham in-t nyys ghonese kta [Duteh, ' neared'], tuu нoo'rdo-n-t zii'qon in-t sprii`gən. 27 лә bruur. 29 dat ik mit m'n vriondon ook is vroo lik mokht bhee'zo. 31 kind, suu bint a•ltiid bii m'n.
134. Ouddorp, village on West-Voorne, formerly an island (51 $n 48,3$ e 57). II. 172.

11 'n zee.kər mi'nsə нad tbhee' Ј0'qəs. 12 วn z'n vəว'dər ghaf-t om. 15 om də verkas-ta bhéi •ənə [observe the gerundial final ( $-\partial$ ), te weiden $\cdot e]$. 18 voo $\cdot$ dar, ik eb zo'ndo baghョa• tee ghon suu. 22 briq gháu də be'sto klee‘ron нiir om an to dun'ne [gerund], gheef-əm-on riq an z'n vi•qər ən skhuu'nən an zə bee' 'nən. $23^{\prime}$ 'b me*stkalf. 24 bhant dee*zə zœœn van mee bhas doo'd, on is nuu bheero'm әvo•qo. 25 on z'n óu'sto zocen bhas in 't veld, en tuu i bhéigh ['away'] ghiq an bi нyys bagho's to ko'mə, Hoordə ii-t trom@ lt [Freneh tumulte, in a form spread over all the Netherlands]. 27 va bruur. 29 om is locet [see sp. 131] ta e•bha mit mo kaməraa's. 31 kind, sun bint a ltiid bi miin.
XXVII. Zeeland. II. 176.

## 135. Burg, village on Schou-

 wen island ( $51 n 42,3$ e 50). II. 182.11 'n zee•kar mens ad tbhee' zoeons. 12 in i dee'ldo zo 't ghuud. 15 om də ve'rkons to bhéi $\cdot$ ən. 18 vaA•dər, ik ee ghazo ndighd tee.ghon лuи. $2: 2$ briiqt -at besto pak klee ron iir, in duut-am dat an, in gheef-an riiq an z'n and, in skhuu non an z'n fuu'ton. 23 't ghama'sto kolf. 24 bhant dee'za zoc'no van mee bhas doo'd, in ii is ghavo ndo. $25^{5}$ in z'n óu'sto zoce•no bhas in-t veld; in tuu i di khto bii yys kbheæm, oord-ii-t gheza•q in-t ghedans. 27 Ja bruur. 29 da- $k$ mii mə vri-ndən is vroo lik kon bhee $\quad \mathrm{zo}$. 31 kind, sii bin o.ltoos bii m'n.
136. Tolen, island (51 n 32, 4 e6). $\quad$ II. 185.

11 'n zee*kar me'nsa a [had, the final consonants are constantly omitted] thhee' zocons. 12 on i dee' lda oc ldor [Dutch humlieden' them,' $r$ r universally
used in Zecland] 't ghuud. 15 om do verkes to bharkhton. 18 raA $\cdot d$ or, $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{E}$ ['I have'] kbhæed ghadare tee-ghon Juu. 22 briiq m'n gháu-t be'sto klee'd, on duut om dat an, on gheeft-om-on riiqk an $z$ 'n and, on skhuu'non an $z$ 'n ruu'ton. 23 't ghame'sto kalf. 24 bhant m'n zeœ•no bhas zo ghuud as dos'd, on is rrom [Dutch wederom, again] ghavo•ndo. 25 on $z$ 'n óu'sto zœœ:nə bhas op-t land on tuun-on van-t land vrom kbham on a ['quite,' Dutch al ] di•khto bi yys bhas, $00^{\prime}$ 'rdon ii da-zə zo qən ən da-zə da•nstən. 27 Jo bruur. 29 om mee m'n vrii-ndon is pleezii•r-t e•bən. 31 kind, Jee bint $0 \cdot$ Itiid bii m'n.
137. Zuid Beveland, in English South Bereland, island ( $51 n 27,3$ e52). II. 190. [Lowland language of the greatest part of the island of Wolfaartsdijk.]

11 di bhas is 'n man, dii tbhee' zœens a. 12 วn i verdee' ldan 't ghuud. 15 om də verkons to bharkhton. 18 vaa•dər, ' $k$ ææ zo•ndə әdææ' tee•ghən лuи. 22 æelt iir 'n best pak klee'ron on lææt-ən dat an duu', on gheeft -ən riiqk an z'n aa•nən [' hands'], en skhuurnən an $z$ 'n vuu'ten. 23 't ve'ta kalf. 24 bhant iir mə zœœ•иə bhas dəəd, ən ii is әvo•nde. 25 ən $z$ 'n óu'stə zœœ'nə bhas in 't reld; on as 'n vrom kbham, on kort bi yys kbham, oo rdən ii-t ghəza $\cdot q$ әn-t ghada ns. 27 Јә bruur. 29 om ok is mi m'n kamoraa's plazii. $\mathbf{r}$ t' óu•on ['hold']. 31 kind, sii bin a-ltiid bii mee.
[The word (di), r. 11, is written $d i_{r}$, and Winkler notes that this $r$ is not spoken, but serres to give the preceding rowel its sound in short syllables; this is theoretically (di), but practically (de). Similarly for (mi), v. 29.]
138. Wemeldinge, Jerseke, and Fattendijke, villages on the north-cast of the island of Zuid Beveland, specimen 137. II. 193.

11 'n zee'kər me'nsə a tbhee' zœœ゚'nən. 12 әn da dee z'n vas dor. 15 om de ve rkəns to bha'khton. 18 vas $\cdot$ dar, ik $æ$ әzo ndighd tee ghon sun. 22 briiqt iir is 'n móoi• pak ghuud, on duut -ən dat an on gheet-ən-ən riiqk an $z$ 'n vii'qər, on skhuu'non an z'n vun'ton. 23 't be'sta kalf. 24 bhant m'n zecœ-nэ bhas doo d , on i is əvo'qon. 25 әn $z^{\prime} \mathrm{n}$ óu'stə zœœ'nə bhas op-t veld, on as dii
yot t veld nir yrs kbham, oordon ii zo zii qqan on spriitqən. 27 so bruur. 29 om mi ma kameras's is pleziir ${ }^{\text {'t }}$ æeen ['have']. 31 jo qon, Jee bint - Itiid ba'i mee.
139. Goes, or ter Goes, town ( $51 n 29,3 e 53$ ). II. 196.
[Winkler remarks that the close and open $o$ and $e$ are distinetly separated, and ie, oe, are diphthongal.]

11 'n man a tbhee' zœœ•non. 12 әn tuu vərdee' ldən i œ'ldər 't ghuud. 15 om do verkens ta bhéi•ən. 18 vaA $\cdot$ dər, ik ace- $k$ ghazo ndighd tee ghon suu. 22 briiqt iir daa dolik 't be'stə klee'd, on duut 't 'm an, on gheeft 'n riiqk an z'n and, ou skhuu'neu an $z^{\prime} n$ vuu ton. 23 't ghave to half. 24 bhant dii zœœ•nə van mee bhas dood, on is ghəvo'ndə. 25 әn z'n óu'stə zœœ•nə bhas op-t land, an tuun-ən di-khtə bi yys kbham, oo rdan ii -t gheza $\cdot$ q ən-t ghada-ns. 27 Јə bruur. 29 da- $k$ mee m'n vri ndan is plezii r ææ kon. 31 kind, sii bin a•ltiid bii mee.
140. Noord Bereland, island (51 n 33, 3 e 47). 11. 199.

11 d $i$ bhas is 'n man, dii tbhee' zœœ๐s a. 12 en i tərdee'ldə 't ghuud. 15 om do re•rkens to bharkhton. 18 raa dər, k -ææ kbhææed ədææ• tee-ghan Juu. 22 æeelt iir 't be'stə pak ghuud, әn lææt-ən dat an duu, on gheeft-ən-ən riiqk an z'n vi•qər, an skhuu non an z'n ruu'ton. 23 ' $t$ re'tə kelf. 24 bhant ii m'n zœœe nə bhas dəod, on ii is vrom әvo'ndə. 25 ən z'n ón'stə zœœ'nə bhas in-t veld, on as dii vrom kbham, on kort bii yys kbham, oordo ii-t zii•qən ən-t da-nsən. 27 Јə bruur. 29 om ook is mi m'n kaməraa's plozii•r t' æn. 31 kind, si bint $0 \cdot$ mes alltid bii m'n.

## 141. Walcheren, island ( $51 n 30$,

 $3 e 55)$. II. 202.11 dar bhas is ' $n$ man $2 n$ diin AA tbheé zœœœns. 12 әn da vaA dar skhee'də z'n ghuud on ghaaf dən Juu'qən z'n e'rfposi [ ' inheritance-portion ']. 15 om op da verkan to pa'son. 1s vas dar, $k-r e-k$ [' $I$ have I,' repeated pronoun, frequent hereafter] zo.nda ghadieæ tee ghon suu. 22 briiqt gháu də be'sto plœ'nso. an dunt-om dii an, әn gheelt-ən-ən riiqk an $z^{*} n$ vii-qər on skhun'non an z'u vuu'ton. 23 't ghoma'sta kal'f. Q4 bhant 't is net E'ndar of dee'za zocu'no van mee dood ghabhi•st éit, on bluce ghoro'ndən is. 25 ən z'n óu'sto zœœ'nว bhas
op－t veld，an as on bheero ma kbham， en kort bii－t of［Dutch hof，farm－ yard］bhas，oordon ii－t ghezii•q on ghesprii q． 27 Јэ bruur． 29 om m＇n kaməraA＇s is to trektee ron，on vróoi•alik mi mee•karro［＇mates，＇ Dutch makker，comrade］to ziin． 31 sum，see bint Aa 1 liid bii mee．

142．Arnemuiden，small town （ $51 n 29,3 \ell 30$ ）．II． 204.

11 ＇n zee＇kar me＇nsa an tbhee＇ zœœens． 12 әn z＇n ghaf＇m z＇ı posee• ［or（po．sa）？＇portion＇］． 15 om op da verakons to pa＇son． 18 vai $\cdot d$ ar， $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{k}$ ghrosta zo＇nd odææ tce ghon Jun． 22 briiq iir ton ee＇stan＇t be＇sto klee＇d， on duut at an z＇n liif，on gheeft an riiqk an z＇n vii＇qər，on skhuu＇non an z＇n vuu＇ton 23 ＇t ghema＇sto ka＇laf． 24 bhan m＇n zœœ•nə bhas dəəd，ən k－e－d－＇n［＇I have I him＇］bhiiro＇ma
 bhas－t－ar nii bii，mer ii bhas in－t feld，on as－əu ko－rte bii z＇n raA•dors yys kbham，oord－ii zii $q$ qə on sprii•qə． 27 Јa bruur． 29 om mee min vri＇ndən is＇n vróoi elikan ææ•van ［＇evening＇］t－óu＇ən［＇to hold＇］． 31 Juu•qəon，Jee bint $o \cdot m$ as AA•ltiid bii mee．

## 143．Hulst，town（51 n 17，

 4 e 3）．II． 209.［The $h$ and $g$ are confused；Hulster men will say een hoede goet for eens goede hoed＇a good hat，＇een houde ring for een gouden ring＇a gold ring，＇ een goute tafel for een houten tafel＇a wooden table．＇This confusion occurs among the lower classes，especially those who cannot read，and is not un－ common in Zeeland and Flanders．It is not shewn in the specimen．］

11 ＇n zeekaron mens－aA＇i tbher z．oวns． 12 әn－ái dee＇ld－əu＇t ghnud． 15 om da ve rkas ta bhái•ə． 18 vaA•dor，ik－eb－＇k ghezo ndighd tee－－ ghan－óu． 22 briq－iir vart－＇t be－stə klee＇t－on duut－at－am Aan，on gheeft －әnən riqk－AAn z＇n－ant－ən skhuu＇nə aan z＇n vuu•ta． 23 ＇t ghave＇ta kalf． 24 bhant dees mái non zoon bhas daət－ －ən－i－is ghəvo nda． 25 on zái nən－ －óu＇sto zoon bhas－in－t－felt；an－as－i－ kbham әn－t－əə＇is ghənaA $\cdot \mathrm{kt}$ ，oo rdə－ái－t ghaza－qk on－t laabhai＇t［supposed to be connected with French aubade，and not with lawai，specimen 106］． 27 un bruur． 29 dad－ik mec－mo vriin $\cdot$ də mokh vrooláik záin． 31 kind，ghái záit－a Itáid bái máin．

144．Alisel，or Axel，town （ $51217,3 e 55$ ）．II． 212.
［The Roman Catholie peasantry in the southern part of the Aksel district speak as in specimen 143，but the Protestants as follows．The close and open $\varepsilon, o$ ，are said to be very distinctly separated．］

11 ar bhas æærghons ii mand dii
 deeld $巛 \cdot l d a r$ yyt bhaa zo $100 \cdot d i g h$ aan， om to kœ＇na lee＇von． 15 bee＇ston on ræa•rkans op to pa＇son an to vuu＇ron． 18 vaA•dər， k －ieæи zœ＇ko zo•ndə ghadaa＇n an nii•madal ghuud mee suu gha－ndeld［＇handled，＇dealt］． 22 breqt－om don nio＇bhan la•qkrok，on duut－an ghóu•a kno•pon au z＇n are•msbii＇zon［＇gold studs on his shirt－ front，＇hemdsboord or boezem，the pro－ digal son is treated as an Aksel peasant lad］，on zœ＇lvarə bruu •ksti＇kən［＇silver breeches－seams＇］an，on sknn＇nə mee ghi spen［＇buckles＇］． 23 әn woe ldar ze．lon［＇we shall＇］kuu ka［＇cakes，＇ take the place of the calf］$l_{\text {aA }} \cdot \tan$ ba•kən． 24 bhant mən zœœ•no bhas voor ons zoo ghuud as dood，on ii is ghəvo•ndən． 25 dən óu•dstan van də zeœens bhas in－t land，on tuun i di $\cdot$ khtor bi yys kbham，oo rdon ii zii•qən əu sprii qəə． 27 Јə bruur． 29 om plesii $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ t－een mee $d$－a $\cdot n d r$ a suu＇qars． 31 bel［＇well＇］，man sư＊qəu，see bent a lo tii＇n bii mən．

145．Kadzand，village and district，formerly an island（51 $n 21$ ， $3 e 24$ ）．II． 216.

11 daa bhas ees＇$n$ mens dii tbhee zoeens a． 12 in i deeldan－t ghund o．ndar œ•ldar． 15 op da verrkəns to pasən． 18 raA•dər，ik ææn zo•ndə ghodaa＇n tee ghan jun． 22 aalt＇t móoi•sto ghuud，in duut at＇m an，in duud＇n riiqk an z＇n vii•qər，in skhuu＇－ nan an z＇n vuu＇ton． 23 ＇t ghave＇to kalf． 24 bhant m＇n zece ne iir bhas dood，in ii is ghavo nen． 25 in z＇n óu＇sta zoce＇na bhas in－t land，in as i kbham，in kort bi yys bhas，oordon ii－t ghaza ${ }^{\text {q．}} \mathrm{k}$ in－t gheda＇ns． 27 Јә bruur． 29 om mec mo vrii•ndon ees－ən plezii $\cdot \mathbf{r}$－ ighən dagh t－æcen． 31 suu－qən，Jee ziit a－ltiid bii mee．

146．Sluis，town（51 n 23， $3 e 23$ ）．II． 219.

11 ＇n zec＊kər mens a tbhec zocons． 12 an i dee lda－t ghuud 0 ＇ndo eeldar． 15 om do verrkons to bhackhton． 18 vas dor，ik en［＇have＇］kbhast
ghadaa'n tee ghon juu. 22 anl -t be'sta kleed, in duut-ot-om an, in duud-an riiq an z'n and, in skhuu'non
 24 bhant dee'za zocon ran mee hhas dood, in ii is ghovonden. 25 in z.n óusto z.cœen bhas op -t land, in as i dikht bi yrs kbham, aว rdon ii-t ghaza $\cdot q$ in-t ghada'ns, 27 јә bruur. 29 om mee mo rrindon locertigh to ziin. 31 kind, ләə bind $a \cdot l t i i d$ bii mee.

## 147. Aerdenburg, town (51n16,

 $3 \in 27$ ). II. 222.11 das bhas ' $n$ keer [and (okee $r$ ) 'once,' Duteh cenkeer, much used in Belgium] 'n man dii a tbhee zoceus. 12 ən ii vardee.ldən 't ghuud. 15 om də va rakens to bha $\cdot k h t \not 2 n .18$ vai dar, 'k dee•əo-k-ik [this repetition of personal pronoun is common in Flanders] zo ondə tee ghəu suu. 22 aAld-ə-keer 't be-sta klee'd on duu •dat im an, an-ən riiqk an z'n vii•qər, ən skhuu • nən an z'u vuu'tan. 23 't ve'ta kalf. 24 bhan d'n dee'zon m'n zœœ•nə dii bhas doəd,
 blas in 't land, on as i kbham on $t$-yys naA' dərdən, วə'rdəu ii-t zii• qəu ən in də ro'ndə da'nsen. 27 ла bruur. 29 om mee m'n maA'ts ees lœœ'ta t -ən ['to have']. 31 m'n kind, ghee zii ghii a-ltii bii mee.
148. Eede and Heille, villages (51 $n 14,3 e 27$ ). II. 225.
[Really East Flemish, much mixed with French.]

11 nən zee ${ }^{-k ə r a n ~ m e ́ i-n s a ~ a t ~ t b h e e ' ~}$ 7.œœ๓ns. 12 an zanən-vaA $\cdot$ darə partazee'rdən œ'ldar də syyksesii. ['succession']. 15 om do zbhocns to bha'khtenə. 18 vas dara, k-ee na-k-ik [the pronoun tripled!] mesdaA.n jee oghens óu. 22 breqt iir voorts 't be-sto klee'd, әn duu'gha-t-əm AA'nə, әn la.qt-əm ənən-riiqk an $z ' n$ aand, on skliuuns an z'n vuu'tan. 23 't ghome'sta kalf. 24 bhant den dee'zan mənən zœœe na bhaara dœœed, en ái es bhedero'm gharonan. 25 an z'n ái ston zœœ'nə bhas œp də sti $\cdot k \neq n$ en os-t-an kaa'mə ən t-óis genaA ktagha, ๗œ-rdən ái den zaq ən-t ghəre•khtə. 27 óu•n bruura. 29 opdaa-k mee m'u vri'ndakans ee's ghee'stigh mokht záin. 31 kiind, ghee zái ghái a•ltáis bái mái.
[Observe the gerundial dative (to bha khtana) v. 15 ; Winkler remarks that this linguistically correct form, which has almost entirely disappeared
in North Netherlands, is still in full use in this and many other Flemish dialects, and that the dative is even used after independent nouns, as v. 13, buchten lettel dongene, 'after little (a few' dars.']

## XXVIII. ZUID - NEDER-

 LAND, in English BELGIUM. II. 230 .XXIX. Lmiburg, Belgian portion. II. 234. Compare No. XVII. 51, etc., p. 1389.
149. Helchteren, village (51n3, 5 e 23). II. 235.

11 doэ' bhats ins ano-mins dee' tbhii zœœпns на. 12 әn darai dər lyyt z'n ki'nar ['let his children'] dee'•lan. 15 ən də parkhtər dœœ нœт də ve•rkən нyy'ən. 18 raA'dər, ikh mem zœn
 də raa -dlar se fas ['quickly,' see specimen 51] z'n be sta kliir haa lan. 23 a ret kalf. 24 da zənə-soq trek [Dutch terug, back] ghako mo bhass. 25 o-nartcesa ['meanwhile'] kbhaam! dan aa dsta zoon oot het veld, an bhéi ['when'] ar in нооs нyу‘da zi'qən әn da'nson... 27 uur bryy. 29 on rocer mikh Ho'mon-zə ['have they'] za lee'van zээ' ghiin ['none'] kœec'rmis ['Christmas,' fair-time, feasting] ghaнaa'ghən. 31 Joq, ghee' zeet a lteed bee mikh.
150. Hasselt, town (50 $n 56$, $5 e 20)$. II. 238.
[The sound of ao in kaome, etc., and $o$ in $v l o o g, ~ g o ~(q u i c k l y), ~ z o o n, ~ l i e s ~ b e-~$ tween $o$, eu, and $a$, but "one must be a Masselter to foree one's tongue to it." I have written ( $\Phi$ ) as a compromise.]
11. do bhoecr ins nə man día tbhéi zeen на. 12 dóun ['then'] verdii•ldsıə da vaar 't ghóud te'san ['between,' Dutch tusschen] нin tobhéiə. 15 uup $z$.n bhe'niq var z'u verkos ta не́i•ว. 18 vaA dar, ikh нeb fœœ๐t ghəua•d tee gho yy-khə. 22 нáai•ldsıə ins ghat 't be-sta kliid, ou dóutsh [or (dGutssh)] œm da Aan, on stœk-əm anə-riqk in zanə-ve•qər, on skhatan in $z$ 'n veet. 23 ' $t$ vet kalf. 24 bhant mənว-zuecen hee bhœecr doəd, on noo as am bhirm [Dutch wederom, 'again'] tregh [Dutch terug, 'back'] ghavo na. 25 mail zonən-aa disto zeewn bhœor op 't re'ldsh [may be ('veltsh, 'veltssh, veldzh)] on bhee 'm in 't tregh kacema kort an zee'nos ghekeex'mo
bhœœer, uii $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$ ən əm da-sə an-t ze•qəon on an-t daa'son [the first ( n ) lost] bhœœ'rə. 27 uur bre'ir 29 vər m'n kameran•ton ins to traktee•rə. 31 suuq, dzhee [written dsje, may be (tsiée)] zeet a.lteed bee mikh.
151. St. Truiden, in French St. Trond, town (50n48, 5e12). II. 242.

11 doo bhas әпә-kiir (see specimen 147) әпə-man, dee a tblii suu-qəs. 12 on do vaar dii' ld o on ghaf 't œem. 15 most or cem bee na buur as verrakəs-ee't ['as farrow-herd'] vəryy'ra ['hire']. 18 paa, kh-œœeb ghazo udighd tee ghə uukh. 22 óilt ['fetch'] se•fəs nii'və klii'r ən a pasr uii-va stii• vals vœcer œm asn to duun, en onə-ghoo'n reqk vœळr әu zənə-vi'qәr tə stee-kə. 23 't vet kalf. 24 bhant mənə-zoon bhas duu'd, ən ikh œœb œm trœk ghəvuu•qə. 25 Joo-maa ['yes, but'] don aa dsta zoon dee bhas ent veld; on as-t-ər t-áus kám, on al da labhee't on da ghaskhurii'f yo da, kos-t-ər nee bəghrə'i'po bhaa da-t bhas. 27 zə bryyr. 29 vœœer z'n vri udon ins to trakitee•rə. 31 kend, dzhee [or (diée), written dje] za'it alta'id bee mikh ghebhee-st.

## XXX. Zuid Brabant or Bel-

 gian Brabant. II. 247. See No. XVIII. 57, etc., p. 1390.152. Zuurbeemden, village near Haelan (50 $n 57,5$ e 7). II. 249.

11 dou'a bhas ənə-kii'r nə man, da'i'ə tbhii' zoo'non на. 12 on də vaar liit dan a-las déi•lo. 15 verkohee't to bhoddo [' to become farrowherd']. 18 vas'dar, ikh bhii't-at, ikh нem gere-ligh ghəmi-st tee ghə uukh. 22 нelt ghóu, ghóu də be-sta k lij'rən, duut z нœm ААп, gheeft нœm ok әnən-riq in zə’i'nə vi-qər, ən briqt нœт skhuu'nən om an to duun. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant ma'i'na zoon
 ghəvo:nə. 25 tabhə i la da dad a•lamóu'l vœœ'rviil [' every-time happened'] bhas den aa'dsta zoon in 't veld, duunt er nóu'ə нळ'is kamp, нyy'dat ar va véis-t labhéi t van-t zi'qən ən-t da•nsən. 27 uur bryy. 29 vœr m'n vri'ndə ənə-kii'r ta traktee 'ron. 31 soq, ghee zə'it нø'məs a-lta'id bə'i mikh.
153. Diest, town $(50 n 58,5 e 3)$. II. 253.

11 dər bhas eens ənə-zee karə vent
[' man'], dii' tbhii' zoo:nən ad. 12 ən da vaA'dar vardi•ldo elk zə pat. 15 num da verkas ta yy'a. 18 vaA dar, ikh em kbhaad ghadaa'n tee gho un•kho. 22 spuud ['hasten'] uukh al ghán, breqt a niif klii'd on van da skhuu'nsta ['most beautiful'] әn duugb-ət-әm asn, ən gheft œm әnənrigk ann z'n and, on skhuu'nəu aAll z'u vuu'ton. 23 ə fət ka-lof. 24 bhant mənə-zoon dii daA əs, bhas dood, an ee as nóu ghavo na. 25 mər dən ou'sto bhas boo'to ['without'] unp 't feld, on as om o-ntrent de•tigh okh fi•tigh sta.pe van oo's ['about 30 or 50 steps from house '] bhas, un'rdan әт zi q.qə әn spri•q. 27 uur bryyr. 29 om mee mən vri'ndə in kompanii-t- ea•tan. 31 zoon, ghee zet a.lteed bee mikh.

## 154. Tienen, in French

 Tirlemont ( $50 n 38,4$ e 56). II. 256.11 doo' bhaar 'n kir 'n mins dee' tbhii' suu'qəs a. 12 әu də vaar eet œn 't ghuud ghede-ld. 15 vər da verəkəs 't уy•วə. 18 vaa'rkə [this should meau ' little father,' but may be a misprint, as the word is (vaA•dər) in v. 21], ikh am o.nghaleek gh'ad ['I have wrong had'] tee ghon œekh. 22 Háilt ənə-kir aghoo [Dutch al gauw 'all quiekly'] do be'sta kleera dee' gha viqt ['find,' Dutch vindet] on trekt-œm dee’ AAn, on stekt œm ənə-riqk in zonə-vi•qər on skhuun in z'n vuu'tə. 23 də ve'tə me'tə [' calf,'
 in Overijssel means 'stuff']. 24 bhant monə-snuq ii bhas dood, on-ə as bhiir troegh ghavo q.q. 25 o-ndarte'sa ['meanwhile'] bhas dən aa $\cdot d$ sto zoon uup 't veld, on as-t-ər træegh kamp on beka'nst [' near'] an z'n ceos [or (ææhs) 'house'] bhas, yy'ədə-t-or zi-qən on spri'qə. 27 zə broe'i. 29 var man vri'ndan ins a fiée'skə to ghee'va. 31 okh suuq, ghee' zed œ- mos a ltee'd bee mikh.
[On the word slavodder, 'whore' v. 30 , Winkler remarks that it is properly the word slodder, 'sloven,' with a join inserted (een lasch or in) in the Flemish way, thus: sl-av-odder, and in the same way West Flemings make the North Nederlandish slet, 'slut,' into sl-av-etse, with the same meaning; similarly in spee. 147, v. 14, the word schabouvelik occurs, which is schouwelijk, 'showily,' with a Flemish insertion of $a b$.]
155. Leuven, in French Louvain, city ( $50 n 53,4$ e 43). 11. 261.

11 doo ["a simple sound, nearly long Dutch oo, nearest French eau, and approaching German $u$ "] bhas no man dii tbhee zoons a. 12 on do voor vardee ldan-in dan 't ghuut. 15 uun
 noo va, nóu•ə) from (nóu•də) 'hold,' the usual (nuu'don) 'keep' is unknown at Louvain]. 18 voo dar, $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{cm}$ ghemi•st, $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{em}$ zoo veel kood ghado'n tee'gho aa. 22 óilt se fas at be'sta kleet an duut-at-əm on ; stekt ənən-riq on zənən-vi•qəə ən duut-əm skhuu non on. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant menə-zoon bhas dood, on A'i es ghavona. 25 so-moo, dan óu dsta zoon bhas tarva'ilend [' whiling,' staying] unp 't velt, on as da'i'n bhee kbhamp on boka inst [' almost'], on $A$ 'is bhas, oo don-əm vaa ba'ito daa zo doo bee'zigh bhoo ro nee zi•q̧an ən da'nso. 27 uu brii. 29 uum mon vrii-nden ins to traktee ren. 31 mo kint, gha'i za'id alta'id ba'i ma'i. [ (A 'i) is said to "sound nearly like the English boy, but the (i) is very obscurely pronounced," more as ( A 'j) perhaps, but it is a mere variety of (ái).]
156. Brussel, in French Bruxelles, in English Brussels, city (50n52, 4 e 21). II. 268.
[The 'sneeze' of the Brusselers is stated not to be exactly Dutch $s j$, or French eh, or German sch, but resembling all, and to have something of $l$ and $n$ mouillées in it; hence I write it (sj) or (shj). J. F. Willems wrote it $j$, as hitj 'hot,' and S. C. A. Willems wrote it jseh, as hitjsch, and Winkler writes it $s j$. The Brussels population and the country about is distinctly low German, not French. The following version is the genuine old language of the lower city.]
11 duu bhas ane-kii anə-man dii tbhii-јə zoo'nən a, 12 әn dз voor ghaf uun iidor ze poot ['part']. 15 uum da ve rkas $t$-aa'va. 18 roor, $t$-es bhoor [' true'] 'k em-ik-ik vœoel, gh'ii'! [Dutch geheel, altogether] wœel kbhood ghadoo:ən tee ghən aa. 22 spúnid ảailon isj al ghaa, oltsj ['feteh'] ə skhóoi ['beautiful'] nyyt klii't vœoo ['fore' $]$ om uun to duun, stekt om ənən-riqk uun zənə-vi•qər, on gheeft-am-ə poor skhun'non nun z'n vuu'to. 23 ә vet kalf. 24 bhant mənə-zoon
duu bhas dóoid, on naa e $e$ mo bhee ' m bhee ghavo no. 25 moo dan óu'dsta zoon bhas bóoita nuu 't feltjsj ghabhee'st, on as am zuu abha.d [Dutch ietwat, 'somewhat'] in do ghabyyrro ['neighbourhood'] van $z$ 'n óois kbhamp, óoidən aai al-t si $\cdot q$ ən on da•nsən. 27 a bryy. 29 on mee m'n kameroo don isj braa to smélon. 31 zoon, ghee záai ghaa i mas a ltáaid báai ma t-óois.
157. Noord-Brussel, Schaarbeek, etc., the suburbs on the North of Brussels, see No. 156. II. 273.

Il doo bhas ənə-zee-kərə man dii' tbhii' zoo nen a. 12 ən də voor dilttjsjon $\propto ๗ \cdot l$ ln œœ:lo [Dutch hunlieden repeated] poot. I 5 uum z'n verkas ghúui to sloo ghə [Dutch gade te slaan, 'notice to strike,' to mind]. 18 voor, t-es bhoor k -am tee ghan a kbhood ghaduu'n. .22 ghef ghaa o klii'd on da juu'qa, en ii'n ['one'] van da be'sta; duutjsj əm ənə-riqk on zənə-vilnjər, on skhuu'non on $z$ 'n vyy'ton. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant monə-zoon bhas dóoid, an aa əs bhee ghəvo nə. 25 dən aa dsta zoon bhas in 't feld ghebléi va; moo as ən noo z'u úuis kbhamp, iœœe'dən a myyzii k , da•usən ən zank. 27 œœ•la bryyr. 29 num mee man rri•ntjsj moo'ltaad t-aa'va. 31 Јuu•qə, ghee zaat $a \cdot l$ laa baa ma.
XXXI. Antwerpen, in French Anvers, in English Antwerp. II. 279.
158. Tielen, village, near Turnhout, town (51n19, 4e57). II. 281.

11 dar bhas es nə vaA dar mee tbhii' zoo nəən. 12 nee, da vaA dər dii' bhas droo var konte $\cdot n t$, an i liit z'n Jun'qəs daa.lan. 15 da verkos dee нууәn. 18 vaa dar k-em vocel kaad ghadaa'n. 22 dunt-əm gháu skhoon dii qan AA, əu-nə riiqk Aa z'n rii qqor $\partial u$-skhuun AA $z$ 'n vuu'ta. 23 't vet kalf. 24 bhant mano-zoon bhas dood, an-ik em tareegh ghavono. 25 jas-mor den ee'dstan suu'qan bhas dan uup 't veld aAn 't bherkən, on as a tee'ghan 's AA•vas ['evening'] ump nois as kbham, oordon ce va vaas da labhái'd on-д kost or ghono kop ai kra'i ghon [' and he could there no head on get,' and he could not minderstand it.] 27 e bryyr. 29 om m'n vri'ndan es to traktee ran. 31 Juu•qa, ghee záit uu•mes a.ltái bái mái.
159. Mol, town (51n12, 5e7). II. 284.

11 daa bhas 'no man dii' tbhee' zoo'non AA'i ['had ']. 12 on da vas'dar rardee'lda dan 't ghuud. 15 də ve‘rəkəs yy'Jə. 21 vaa dor, 'k əm 0 ughəla'ik. 22 breqkt se•fas 't be'sta kleed, on duu ghas 't aAn; stekt-əu riqk a zonə-ve'qər ou duut-om skhuu*nən ann. 23 't vet ka•ləf. 24 bhant məna zoon bhas dont, an ii is ghavo no. 25 don ál'sto zoon bhas toe'san dii'n ta'id óit; as ə'i t-óis kbhamp, yy'rdən a'i va bóita-t labhaa't. 29 om mee m'n vree-ndon nup 't eeton. 31 do vas'do zee-m dan dat нә'i a alta'i ba'i -m bhas.
160. Antwerpen, in French Anvers, in English Antwerp ( 51213 , 4 e 23). II. 293.
[Considering Antwerp pronuneiation to be the 'type' of South Netherlandish or Belgian forms of speech, Winkler gives rather a long account of it, which is here condensed.

A long is oa, nearer o than $a$, almost the French ô in fantône [that is, (As)]. When without stress, it is like a common short $0,(0,3)$, as maar $=$ mor.

A short is very like $e$ short or German ä short; man, had, kwam, sound as German münn, ädd, kwämm [that is, (e)]. But when it has the stress, it sounds as half long $A$, nearly as French ane [that is, (a)].

E long and close becomes among the lowest classes $e i$, or rather eei, eej [that is, (éi, éei, ées) or (éi, éci, ées)].

E long and open becomes a diphthong $i e ̈$ or $i e \ddot{e}$, exactly like the Friesian ie or $i a$, and this is general Delgian [that is, ( $i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}$ ) ]. When without stress, it becomes in Antwerp simple $i[(i, i$, $\left.\left.\mathrm{e}^{1}, e \S\right)\right]$.

E heary, "de zware e," is a bleating sound between $a$ and $e$, the $a$ found in many IIollandish forms of speech, the French faire, pere [as distinct from ( E ), given to short $e$ above, this is certainly (ææ)]. It often occurs before $r$, where the genuine Netherlandish has aa or $e$, as garme. In Friesic towns, Groningen, ctc., these words have $e$. The same $e$ or $e$ sound is used in other words at Antwerp, which in Belgium generally have ei (éi). The final -aar, -laar, have (æ).

E short before $r$ becomes $a$ short, as werk, kerk, sterk = wark, kark, stark [with (a) ?].

IE diphthong has the pure, not the IIollandish, pronuneiation [that is, (ia), not (ii)]. The lowest class, however, change it to a close long e followed by $j$, as ziel $=$ zeejl [that is, (zéil, zee'jl)].

I short is pure $i$, as in German, especially when it has the stress [that is, (i), $\left.\operatorname{not}\left(i, \mathrm{e}^{1}, e\right)\right]$.

O close and long is generally as in genuine Dutch [(oo) ?], but the lowest speakers add on an obscure $w$, as kowmen for komen (kóou'mon) ; zoon, koning, are zeun, keunik (zœon, zəən; kœœ nik, kə nik).
$O$ or 00 open and long is pronounced oee, that is, as oe with an aftersound of unaccented $\varepsilon$, just like Friesian oe or uo [that is, (un', u')]. This pronumeiation is peculiar to Antwerp, Limburg, and part of Belgian Brabant. But in the two Flanders and the rest of Belgian Brabant this o is called ü̈, (уy'), as sehuun or sehuën (skyyn, skyy'n).

O short has generally in Belgium three sounds; 1) regular, in top (top, top!) ; 2) as Hollandish of, or German u (un, n), in most words, where IIollandish has the obscure short o [apparently ( 0,0 )], as oep for op ; 3) before $r$, as short $e u$, or as German ö [perhaps ( $)$, and not ( $($ ), may be meant]. Many of these words have short $u$ [( $\propto$ ) in my transeription].

U long retains its sound generally (yy); but when followed by $w$, as in $u w$, duwen, and also in mu, it becomes au or aぇvo (áu).

U short in Antwerp and all Belgium, except occasionally in Flanders, is pure $u$, like German ü (y), as üt for hut ( yt ).

IJ and EI under the stress become aai or ai or oai (áai, ái, A'i); without the stress, they fall into simple $a$.

UI, AAI, are both ooi (óoi), as oois for huis.

OEI and OOI are both oci or nej (úvi, ús) at Antwerp. In OOI the $i$ is sometimes lost, and the long open oo becomes oeë (bu') at Antwerp, as (wuu't) $=$ nooit.

AUW and OUW are both auv (áu).
EEW is iew w, "that is, the long open $c e$, which in Antwerp becomes ië or ieë [ii'], ending with a $w$ " [ii'u !'].

IEUW is generally $i e f$ (iif, iof?).
II is not pronounced in Antwerp, the two Flanders, and the western part of the province of Antwerp, and Bel-
gian Brabant. In Eastern Antwerp and in East Brabant, as well as in Limburg, $/$ is pronounced.
$N$ before some consonants becomes $n g(\mathrm{q})$, as kiingd for kind. N is omitted in the termination c , where the next word does not begin with a vowel, as twai moeten alle doage warke.

T is omitted in dat, wat, niet, met, etc., as is also common in Zeeland and North Brabant.

D between two vowels is frequently $i$ or $j$, as spoeien for spocden.

Cases do not differ in adjectives, but genders do. Article: masc. 'ne (na) before all consonants but $b, d, h, t$, and 'nen (nan) before these and vowels; feminine ' $n$ always ; neuter $e(\partial)$ before all consonants but $b, d, h, t$, and ' $n$ before these and vowels. Definite: masc. $d e$, den ; fem. de; neut' $t$. Possessive: m. m'ne, m'nen; f. $m^{\prime} n$; n. $m e, m$. Demonstrative: m. dieë, dië̈n; f. die; n. dut.

Pronouns: gij or ge placed after a verb becomes de, as oor de nie $?=$ hoort gij niet. Hij, otherwise $a$ or aai, becomes in that position cm , as zal cm komen $=$ zal hij komen; but older people preserve $i$ in this case. Wij, not under stress, becomes me. As object of a verb, the third person plural is always $z e$; of a preposition, always un.

A long vowel in verbs is shortened in 3 pr. sg., in 2 pr. pres., and in imp., ik nē̄m, a mĕmt, we nēmen, ge nëmt, ze nēmen; nёm, nëmt.]

11 dor bhæs is na mæn on dii'n æd tbhii' zœœсnə. 12 ən $a-\mathrm{J}$-eet œn ii dər za kiiqsghedii' ${ }^{\text {lt }}$ [' child's portion'] gheghee'v. 15 uum də va'rakas t' uи'Jə. 18 raA dor, k-em kbhas ghado $n$ tee $\quad$ ghə án. 22 mæ•nə, ghán, breqt a paA•sbe'sta [' paschal best,' the custom being to put on new clothes at Easter] klii'd on duu ghee-t-am ann, stekt anan-riiqk on zana-vii qar, an trekt skhuu'nən on $z$ 'n vuu'ta. 23 't vet ka•laf. 24 bhænt mənə-zœœn bhres duu'd, an $a-J$-is trygh ghavo 'qda. 25 mor tarbhái lat bhæs dən áu'stə zœoen nup-t veld; an æs om bheer kbhæm, on æl dikht baa z'n óois bhæs, nu'rdən om zi•qən әn daa'nsə. 27 uи bryyt. 29 um m'n vri-qdon is ta trakteerz. 31 sii, ju•qə, ghee $z a$ gháai $a \cdot \operatorname{lta}$ ba máai.
161. Lier, in French Lierre, town (51 n 8, 4 e 34). II. 297.

11 пә man ad tbhii' zoonə. 12

әn a vordii' 1 ldən-ot ghuud o ndar $\propto \propto \prec$ la. 15 om zon væærakəs t-ce-bha. 18 vaa•dər, $k-ə m$ tee-ghon aa ghazo'ndighd. 22 breqt don ii'rstan ta - bard ['tabard,' frock, a Dutch word] don be'sten, duut-əm-am óun, stekt-əm non-riiqk on $z$ 'n and, on skhuu'nan on z'u vuu'ton. 23 a me'stkalf. 24 omda't maa no zoon dood bhas, ən is bheeruu'm ghavo'na. 25 mor dan aa dsto zoon bhas op-t reld, on tuun a bheer kbhamp, on z'n óous nóu•dordo, oo•rdən-aa-t ghəza•qk. 27 uu brytr. 29 om mee maan rri'ndə t-ee tən. 31 zoon, ghaa zaad a ltaa baa maa.
162. Mechelen, in English Mechlin, in French Malines (51 2, $4 e 23$ ). II. 299.

11 dar bhas nə kii' nə man, dii tbhii' ли•qas aa. 12 on da va'i'dor vərdii' $\cdot$ ldən œœla pat. 15 num da verkəs ghóoi to sla'igho. 18 ra'i $\cdot$ dər, k-em ghazo ndighd tee ghan aa. 22 gheeft al ghaa o klii'd an-t be•sto dat or is, ghett-om nən-riiqk aAn z'u and, an skhuu'nən ann $z^{\prime}$ n vuu'to. 23 't ret kalf. 24 bhant manə-su'qe bhas duu'd, on a-J-is bhee ghavo ne. 25 JAA-mor don aa•dsto zoon dii' bhas up at veld as daa wœœr viel ; ən ghəla•k am nor óoiskbhamp, oo'rdən-əm dor ə labháai't van zii ${ }^{\circ}$ qon an sprii qә. 27 uu bryyr. 29 um mee m’u vri'ndə nə kii' bláai to záain. 31 ghee zaa gháai uu'mas a•ltáaid ba máai.
163. St. Amands, village ( $5 \ln 3$, $4 e 12$ ). II. 302.

11 dóu bhas nə man dii' tbhii' zo0*nən aa. 12 ən də vóu dər ghaf 't $\partial m$. 15 da verkas ghói slóu ghen. 18 róu-dor, k -am kbhóud ghedóu'n teeghan aa. 22 gheft al ghaa a klii'd óun da surqən; ii'n van də be'sta; stekt dan nen-riiqk óun zái $\cdot$ nen vi•qar, on gheft-om skhuu nen óun záin vuu'ta. 23 't vet ghamokt kalf. 24 bhant ons kiind bhas duu'd, on ai $\partial s$-bheer ghəvo no. 25 dən aa'tsten zoon bhas iin't feld ghablee•ran, on as ən nóur œ'is kbhamp, uu'rdon ái daa so bee•zigh bhón ron mee to zii•qən on ta da•nsən. 27 a bryyr. 29 uum nə kii'r mee máin rri’ndə kermis t-aa•van. 31 gha zait uu mos a•ltáid bái mái.
XXXII. OOST - VLAANDEREN, in English EAST FLANDERS. II. 306.
164. St. Nicolaas, town (51 n 10, 4e7). II. 308.

11 dóur blas no kii'r nə mens, dii tbhii' zoo nen at. 12 ən də róu•dar ghaf $z$-elk $\rightsquigarrow \cdot l d ə r$ póurt. 15 om də verkəs ta bha•khtan. 18 róu dər, k-éi misdón’n. 22 óust $\propto$ •ldar [' haste ye'] əu óult al ghaa də be•stə klee•rən ən duu zə-m óun ; stikt-ən-nə riigk on zái nə vii'qər, ən skhuu nən on záin vuu'ton. $23^{\prime}$ 't vet kalf. 24 bhant márna zoon bhas doot, on ái is bheer ghəro-nə. 25 dən aa dsto zoon kbham intersan van -t veld bheer, an as ái nogh ən boo-ghskhœot [' a bow-shot '] van œ'is bhas, kost ái al-t myyzii $k$, ən-t labhái t oo ren. 27 óu bruur. 29 mee máin vríndən nii nэ keer lóu’ton smæę rən. 31 ghee zái ghái a-lted bái mái.
165. Eeklo, town (51 n 12, 3 e 33). II. 311.

11 tər bhas nə kii'r nə ra'i'kən ee‘rə [Dutch heer, gentleman] dii tbhii' zecens at. 12 in dz vaa dərə vardii'ldegh œ'ldar za'i ghuut. 15 do re rkans to bha*khtan. 18 vaA dara, k-en misdaa'n veœr ee. 22 briiqt iir al ghe bho [Dutch gauzue, quickly] za'in be'sto dii q.qn, in duu ghə-t-əm an, in stek-əm nə-riiqk an zə'1́•nə vii•qəro, in skhums a zo'in vuu'tan. 23 't vet kalf. 24 bhant mənə-zœœ'nə bhas dyy't, in a'i is bheero m ghavo n don. 25 maar binst [' in the mean time'] blas zo'i•nən ebh-sto zœœe'nə in dan $a \cdot k ə r a$, in os dan dii $n ə n$ bhee ra kii'rdaghə in an oe'is kbhamp, in yy'rdagha zii-qən in labhéi t e -bliən, 27 ee bruurr. 29 om ma'i mee ma'i rrii ndon no kii'r bhal to duun. 31 tuut, tuut, ma'i kind, gh-ee gha'i a•Ita'id ba'i ma'i ghabhee'st.

## 166. Maldeghem, village(51n13,

 3 e 27). II. 315.11 dar bhaar nə keerkə nən rœe'i kəə man, dii tbhee zeons as. 12 ee laa'tor [?] mo'sta dee-lan. 15 bhaar ghadwo qəon ['foreed'] ran də zbhœœens to bha khton. 18 vaA dar, ek en mesdaa'n tee ghon un. 22-24 ee liipt-əm tee-ghənə ['he ran towards him'], vlaigh an zenon-als [' Hlew at his neek ], ke-sta-әm, әn еe dee [' did,' cansed] van bla'i-skhap ['from blitheness'] omdat ee daar bhaa'ta, 'n vet kaalf sla•khtan. 25-30 dən a ndorə zœœ•nə bəklaA•ghdə əm ['complained'] daar oo varo dat ee $a$ 'kans [' ever,' Duteh al keerens] bras'va ghabheest bhas'ra, on dat dii lwoe'ro ['scamp']
zyy' ghuud o•ntasld bhiira. 31, 32 maiar do vaA dor zei : mo kend! t-on as nii meer of rekht ['it-not is not more of = than right'] daa mee daar vorr loce-ta ['feasting'] maA•kn; blant uu bruu'ra bhaar doəd, au ee as varree'zon ['risen from the dead'], ee bhat varloo'ron ['lost'], on ee as bhee ro ghovo ndon.
167. Irleit, a hamlet belonging to parish of Maldeghem, 166. II. 319.

11 da blaar nə keerkə nə ree•kə man wat tbhee zeeus. 12 do so qusta vruugh zeen dee-laqə. 15 most da zbheens bha.khtan. 18 vaA•dəra, ek een ['have'] mesdaa'n tee gho uu. $22-24$ ee viilt am om don ne-kə on еe dee әи vet kaalf sla.khten om karme'sa t-au•bhan van bla'iskhap omdaa zee'nə zee no [Duteh zijn zoon, his son] gako mə bhat ra. 25-30 matr dan aurstan brun'ra bhaa'ra daar kbhaad o•ma, dat ee $a \cdot k \partial s$ braa.ra ghabhee'st an dat zeen vaidar veoer em nii an dee'. 31, 32 manr da raa do zéi•o: meen kend, last ons bla'i'ə zeen, bhant uu bruu're bhas'ra daad, on ee as varree'zan, ee bhas'ra varloo ran, on ee as bheer ghekeerd [' returned '].
168. Gent, in French Gand, in English Ghent, city ( $51 n 2,3$ e 44). II. 325.
[There are two principal modes of speech. One, the Newbridge Gentish, formerly spoken in the street of NienweBrug or Neder-Schelde, used prineipally by small tradesmen and workpeople. This is lower (platter) than ordinary Gentish, and mueh drawled (sleepend, lijmerig). The present Newbridge mode is really the general old Gentish. The other Gentish is spoken generally by the citizens, and even the upper classes when using their mother tongue; modern IIollandish is "fortunately" not used, even in churches or in most schools.

In this Gentish almost all short rowels are lengthened, as kate or kate for kat, bruge or brungge for brug, steemme for stem, ete. The short $i$ and $e$ of other dialects becomes $\ddot{j}$ ( $0^{\prime}$ ), as drijnke, zijnge, wijnkel, schijnke, mijns, (mensch).
long $a$ is oa (AA) and before $r$ often sounds as a diphthong like French oi in voir (uAa'). .

Open $e$ or $e e$ is a diphthong ieë（ii＇） or nearer èèe，сєё（ $\mathbf{e x}$ ，＇${ }^{\prime}$ e＇）．

IIeary $e$［the（x：e）of Flemish gene－ rally］is $i i$ ，and this is the sound of short $e$ before $r$ ，as piird，zuiird， begiire；stiork，biirg，kiirke，viirke．

Open long o becomes ue（ $\mathrm{yy}^{\prime}$ ），as buem，brued＝1）utch boom，brood．

Close long o becomes eu（œœ），as veugel，rogel．
long $u$ retains its sound（yy），but $u w$ gencrally adds on an unaccented $e$ （－ə）．

The $\ddot{j}$ is $a i$（ai）or even aai（áai）．
The $e i$ is also usually $a i$ ，but in some words $\epsilon e \ddot{e}$, èèe（ce＇， EE ＇），as gëëte，geit， schë̈n，scheiden．

The ui bceomes aai（áai）．
The ou and au are French $\hat{e}$（ee）in some words，and Dutch $\ddot{j}$（ $\rho^{\prime}$ i）in others； but when followed by $d$ ，are always êw （ee＇u）；schêrwe is both schauz or schaduw，＇shade，shadow，＇and schouw or schoorsteen，＇chimney＇；when fol－ lowed by $t$ ，these ou，au，are gencrally $\ddot{i}$（äi），as stijt，stout，＇bold．＇

The $i$ in $i n g$ is not merely long（ii）， but has the secondary stress，as deeliinge， leziinge．［This is quite Chaucerian．］

The old termination－eege，－igge，is in full use，as naaisterigge，naaister， ＇seamstress．＇

The termination－is becomes eesse， as geschiedenesse，and－laar，properly －leer，becomes－lure as dompèlirre， dompeleer，dompelaar，＇loiterer．＇

The termination $u w$ becomes em，as zwalem for zealux，swallow（bird）； but weduwe，wedurcenaar，become wewe， uewirre．

Short $a$ before $r$ becomes long $a$ or oa（AA），as oarm，woarm $=$ arm，warm．

The $h$ is not pronounced．
Unaccented $-e$ is often added，as mocdere，emele（hemel，＇heaven＇），ende （hemd，＇shirt＇），ete．

When $l$ and $r$ oceur in the middle of a syllable，they are frequently omitted， and $r$ before $s$ is regularly mute，as oas，als，ges for gers，gras，as in Friesic bust for burst，borst，＇burst，breast， brush．＇

But ch is heard in mussche，bossche， mijnsehe，menschen，where it is omitted in IIollandish．

For $m p$ ，they use $n p$ or $n t$ ，as lant， lamp．Medial $d$ cither falls into $i$ or $j$ or is mute．Final foreign $j e$ is called $d e$ ，as famielde，familic．

Ulier，wulder，gulder and zulder are used for $h e n$ or $h u n, w i j, g i j, z i j$ ．$H i j$ is
often called $j i j$ ，as＇$k$ en ben te＇$k i k$ nie gexcest，＇t ecte jij geweest（kanbe•ntekik nii ghebhce st，tee tojə＇i ghebhee＇st）， literally＇I not am it I I not been，it has he been，＇＝＇twasn＇t me，＇twas him． Gentish．
11 tər bhaas no kii＇r na man，in ái an tbhii＇zocous． 12 in ái dii＇ 1 － deghə－t yy－ldər âait． 15 om də vii－rkəs to bha•khta． 18 vaA．dəra，k－ee miis－ dat＇n tecoghon ce． 22 als ái nə bái zái ze•lva ghoko mo bhaas，riip ái ii＇nə ［＇he called one＇］van záin kue khte， in ái ghabii $\cdot d \partial g h$ eem－t bee sto do＇i－qə t－aA lo om eem an to duun，eem $\theta$ paar skhuu no to ghee＇va，in na ra＇iqk oop zái＇nə və＇i $\cdot q$ ər tə stee $k ə .23$＇t be－stə kaalf． 24 omdaa mái no zœœe nə， dii dyy＇［＇dead＇］bhaas，bheerra ghovonda es． 25 o－ndartyy＇sgho kbhaam don éebh stə zœœ•nə oop－t land；in ass ái omtree nt den áairza ［＇house＇］kbhaam，yy＇degh ái－t la－ bhai＇t in do spee－Iman． 27 ee bruurro． 29 oom máin vrii nda mee to traktec ${ }^{2}$ ra． 31 masr，mái＇na sơqənə，ghee záit 00 marst a ltáid bái mái．

## 169．Tongral van de werklieden

 in de wijk der Nieuwe－brug te Gent， speech of the work－people in New－ bridge Strect，Gent，see specimen 168.11 nə vaA．dar as tbhii＇zocens． 12 әn də vaA ${ }^{-}$dərə ghaaf ət eem． 16 də rírkas． 18 vai dara，k－ee misdan＇n tee•ghan ee． 22 aast $\propto \cdot$ ldara！lyy＇pt oom záin bee＇sta klii＇•ra，in duu eem on niœœœ＇parr skhuu nəu an，in stekt eem nə ráiqk oop zái nəə vảìqər． 23 ＇t vee＇tsta kaalf． 24 bhant mái nə zœœ＇nə bhaas ghəstoo rve，in ái əs bhee－ra leevat ghabhorda． 25 in aAs dən éebh•sto zœœ厄•no naar áais kbham，yy＇rdəghə ái van ree‘rə－t mazii＇k in－t labháit． 27 ee bruura 29 om mái mee máin kaməraA•tə yy＇k nə kii＇r t－amazcerr． 31 kiind，al bhad－＇k bozii＇t，as－t ii bha．

170．Wetteren，small town （ $51 n 0,3$ e 52）．II． 331.

11 daar bhas nə kii＇r no menskh， dii thhii＇zœoms AA． 12 ən $\theta^{\prime}$ í dii＇•ldaghə $\propto \cdot l d ə r$－t ghuud． 15 om də veerkəs to bharkhtan． 18 vón－dar， k －ee misdaA $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ tee ghan óu． 22 a ast ๗•ldər ！breqt tse•fas－t be＇sta klii＇d on duun－t nom Aa•nə；stek no riq Aan zo＇in and，on skhuu non asal zo＇in vuu＇ton． 23 ＇t vet kalf． 24 bhant mə＇i＇nə zœœ゚nə bhas dyy’d，ən ə＇i əs
ghavo ndən. 25 maar dən aa dsto zœœ ne blas in-t veld, ən as o'i bleer kii'rdagho on tee•ghən œ'is kbham, yy'rdaghon e'i, dat or bi•nən myyzii'k, ghaspee ld on ghada nst bhiird. 27 ón bruur. 29 om nə kii'r mee mə'in vrii•ndən kee-rme'sə t-aa•on ['hold']. 31 so'qən, ghee za'it a'ltyy's ba'i ma'i.
171. Ninove, town ( $50 n 51$, 4 el). II. 334.

11 duaA' bhas no kii' nə mensth, dii tbhii' zuurnon as. 12 on do vuas'r ghaf am za puan'rt. 15 om da verkas to bha $k$ khton. 18 vuan'r, $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{em}$ kuas $\cdot \mathrm{d}$ gheduas'n tee ghon aia. 22 spuudjsj éilən, ən duut $\partial \mathrm{m}$ se•fas skhiyy'on ['beantiful'] dii•qon uas'n, on stek nə riiqk uas' zaa'nə vii-qər, on skhun'nən baA' zan vuu'ton. 23 ә va'itjsj kalf. 24 bhant iik pee'sdon [Dutch peinsde, thought] daa maa'no zuun disy'əd bhas, əu aa as van-eer [van her, 'again'] ghəro 'nə. 25 dən aa-sto zuun kbhamp nuas'r œ'is van-t veldj̣sj, on as on baka'ns ['near'] t-o'is bhas, iyy'ərdon a zii"qon on da-nsen. 27 aa briir. 29 om mee maan rri'njən kerme's t-aa•vən. 31 лu•qən, gh•etjsj ghaa allto'id ba maa.
[On (djsj, tjsj), the 'sneeze,' see specimen 156. On (naA') Winkler says the sound is somewhat (eenigzins) diphthongal, especially before $r$, and then sounds exactly like the French oi in voir. In spec. 170 he had not made that remark. See iutroductory note to spec. 168, on long $a\left(1423, d^{\prime}\right)$.]
172. Eichem, village near Foorde, village (50 $n 49,3$ e 50). II. 338.

11 dər bhas nə kii'r nə maan dii
 djoghən éi $\cdot$ or -t ghnud. 15 om də va'irkəs to bha khtan. 18 vaAr, k-em tee-ghən aa ghazondighd. 22 ost ón'Jor [Dutch haast u, 'haste you'], briqd a ghata t-ii' sto ['the first'] klii'd daa gho vendjsj ['find '], duuvəd om ann, stekt-əm nə-riqk op d-and on skhuu'nən as zo'in vuu'ton. 23 ә vatjsj kalf. 24 bhant mə'i $\cdot$ nə zoon iir bhas diyy'əd, an aa əs bheer ghovo nən. 25 maxa zár non óuiston zoon bhas op-t veldjsj, on as on bheer kbhamp, iyy'ərdəghon-ən spee•lan ən zi $\cdot q$ ən. 27 a bryyr. 29 om mee ma'in vri njon op-t eevon. 31 zoon, gháai zaid a.lliyy'əs báai máai.
173. Geeraardsbergen, Geeroudsbergen, Geertsbergen, or Griesbergen,
in Frouch Grammont, town (50 $n 46$, 4e 47). II. 341.

11 tar bhas na kii'r no maan, dii tbhii' zóinsh aa'i. 12 on do va'i'r dii vordii'ldshogho -t ghund te'sklion zan zóiush. 15 om da varkish to blarkhtan. 18 ' $k$ zaa əm ze-ghən ['I shall say to him'] daa-k kasd ghədaa'n EE'n tee ghan em. 22 tœœ"rə læ'pt, oltjsh a gháu man spli•ntornyy* ['my splinter-new'] plee'nsa an duu zo-min AAn; stikt na riqk AA zaA•nə viq-er [" in $n g$, the $g$ is omitted, and $n$ nasalised as in French." This direction I take to be one given by the translator, and that it was meant to convey the sound of ( $q$ ) to French speakers; the same direction occurs elsewhere. I continue to use (q), but shall note the ( $\Lambda$ )], on skhuu non AA zan vun'ton. 23 't vet kalf. 24 bhant maarno zoo na bhas diyy'od, an aa as van-ee-r ghero-nən. 25 mor den áu'stən zoona dii' bhas tərbhái ligh op-t land; әn as an bhee $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ k kbhamp en dat on bái $t$-œ' is has, iyy'ə rdogh ən-t labhái't van-t myyzii $k$ on van-t ghaza.qksol. 27 a bryyəәr. 29 om mee man vrii-nJon no kii'r taA faliq̣ t-au'ən. 31 .Joq’ən, iyy'ər no kii'r, zái ghə ghại nii a lltáid ba mái?
174. Oudenaarde, in French Audenarde, town (50 $n$ 5l, 3 e 36). II. 345.

11 tor bhas no kii'r no zee•kərə méins dii tbhii' zoœens AA. 12 ən də vaA $\cdot$ dar vardii' $\operatorname{ld}$ dagho -t ghaut. 15 oin do virkes to bhakhtan. 18 vaA dar, k -ee misdaa'n tœee ghən e'i. 22 ghoo tœœ•ra, naalt-ət be'stə klii'd on duu-t-om an, duut-ən nə réiqk aA zái•nə véi•qər, ən skhuuns à zái vuu'ton. 23 't fet kalf. 24 bhant mái 'no zœeœ'no bhas dyy'd, on ii os nœ'i bhee'rə ghavo•ndən. 25 dən ou'sto zœœ'nə bhas op-t feld, on ii ən bli staghə ['wist,' knew] vaa niit. os i nœe'i, al bhee'rə kii' rron, záin óis naa'dэrdee gho ['neared'], yy'rdogh-i
 docen mas kitighən. 27 œ'i bruarə. 29 om mán rrii ndan mee ta trakteeron. 31 kind, uu es t tukh meæ-gholáil da-ghe zœ $\begin{aligned} & \text { kon déi qon van œéi }\end{aligned}$ bruu ro kout ze•ghən ; ghái, ghə záit allyy's bái mái.
175. Deinze or Deynze, town (50 $n 58,3$ e 31). II. 349 .

11 dar blas no kii'r no man, dii tbliii' zecens as. 12 ən du vaa dor dii' $\cdot$ ldagh oe ldur zee ghuud. 15 om da
virkens to bhakhton. 18 vaA doro, k-be misdaa'r tee gha aa'j. 22 ce dee am do be'sto klii' ran as lon reemer zee'no zœœ'no aan ta dumn, on ce dee om o paar skhun non gheen, on no reeqk op zee:no veeqgar stec-kon. 23 't ve'tsta kalf. 24 omdaa' nee'no zece•no, dii-t dyy' bhas, bhee'ra ghavo ndan es. 25 binst dii $\mathrm{mi} \cdot d$ dolon ta'id kbham don aa'j-sta zoce no van op-t land; on oos ce ointrent dan oéizz kbhamp, yy'rdegh ce-t lablia'itt on de spee•Iman. 27 aa'j bruura. 29 om mieen vrii ndon mee to trektec ron. 31 maar mee'na so'qan tokh, gha zee gha'i o'mars a•lteed ba'i ma'i.

## XXXIII. West-Vlaanderen,

 in English West Flanders. II. 352.176. Brugge, in French Bruges, city ( $51 n 13,3$ e 12). II. 356 .
[Long $a$ is pronounced oa (AA) before $d, t, l, n, r, s, z$ (except in plurals of past tenses in verbs, where $a$ is short in singular, as ik bad, wi baden, and except some $b, f, g, m$, has been lost, as made for maagde), but is pure, as $\hat{a}$ in French atre (ar, aa ? ), before $b, p, f$, $r, g, k$ and $m$. And $s c h$ is pronounced sk, which is old low German, and is still heard in some low German modes of speech. The version is too free to be quoted exactly.]

11 dar bhas a ker a man, on ii aa tbhee zœoens. $12 \mathrm{vaA} \cdot \mathrm{d}$, ghe ma [' give me'] ghi -t ghoo no [Duteh het geene, 'the that,' the thing or part] daa- k ik muun en. 15 zbliins. 22 i déi əm zan be'sta klee ron aA•lan. 25-30 dən uu-ktən zœœ nə bhas daar zaluu:s [French jaloux] van, en zéi : vaA dor, t -ən is tokh nii ghoper meteerd! ja dun meer vaar dii slóə-bər ['slobbery fellow'] of daa jə vaar miin do't. saa, zéi do vaa'dər, véi $\cdot$ ntja ['man'] $t$-an is masr reks lik of ' $t$ ziin muut [' it is however right like as it must be,' it is quite right], Jən brunra bhas dood, on ii is varree'zon ['arisen']; zoo is-t gheel simpal daa mə mii ndar [for wij wijlieden 'we we-folk'] daa vii•rən. jo viiqk gho ['receive'] da boloo'niqo van so ghuu ghedra-gh [' of your good behaviour'] in bhal to stan no med ii-doreen, verstan'jo daa? en last ghi ons ol to ghas-ra ['together'] konte'nt ziin dat i nogh leeft.
177. Oostende, in English

Ostend, town (51 n14, 2e54). II. 362. [This is also very freely translated.]

11 tor bhas on keer on raadar, on j-ai thliee zocens, 12 dii ghuu soel ghafif at am ; ee ja, bhaa mo'st on doo'n, ee? 15 om zon zbhiins to bharkhten. 18 vaAdor, k-en zoo lee•lik gladaa'n nii suun ['I have so ngly done with you']. 20-24 bhaa daa son vaa'dar mid am déi? 'k last sha -t ghoras'n [' what then his father with him did, I let you it guess']. gh'u, wa•nsja [‘ jack,' diminutive of Johannes called Jowannes] zéit on ghón, kom bi•nən, mən véint, 'k ziin zoo blii' daa jo daa ziit. mo ghasn se'fons ke'rame's nu'dən. an-t vet kolf most or an, on nogh e ntbhat a qars ['something be-
 fiin noe ltja ['had a fine feast']. 25 den uu'dsto zœœ нә, dii van oo vər әи dagh of tbhéi yyt bhas, kbham binst dan midalantiid nas z'n yys ta bhee gha. saa-mant i oo rda-t myyzii k spee•lon, ən Јə varskhii't ['changes'] ol met an keer. 29 Јว bhor ma bhel zoo vruud zee, dat i nii an bhist bhaa dat ən déi, ən J-ən wi'ldə nii bi $\cdot n ə n-$ ghaan. 31 maar vaA•dar kam yyt. on $a$-khtar an bitsja bibalabuurshas ['after a little coaxing'] Ja tbhee feld ['induced'] om tokh tuu bi zon braura. on za ko•stəu mee•kar, en-t bhas vriind lik van to vooron.
178. Roesselaar, in French Roulers, town ( $50 n 56,3$ e $\overline{\text { I }}$ ). II. 369.

11 t-bhos a kee na man on ii aa thhee zœoens. 12 วn za vas darə i vardee'ld i ol za ghuud oudar $z^{\prime} n$ tbhee zooens. 15 om der do zbhiins ta bhadkhtanə. 18 vad dəra, k-ee-k-ik zo nda ghadaa'n tee ghon suu. 22 anst jo, all-əm a kee za niibh kleed on duu-t an, stekt nə riiqk ip z'n•ə viiq-ərə [see specimen 173] on duu skhum an $z$ n n vur ton. $23^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{t}$ vet kolf. 24 gho mun bhee'tan ['wit,' know] mənə-zœœ'na bhos daad, on ii ee bhecre yy tghoko minn. 25 dan uu'dstan zeee'na bhos ip -t land bee zigh mee bhe-rkano, on os en bhee re kbham van de sti k on, on t -yys naA sdo, i oortogho da za ran bin trompe'toghən an zun'qən. 27 Jœen broo'ro. 29 omda'k ank vaar m'n vrii'ndon zuu kœœen a kee kerme'sa uu-don. 31 maar su'qon [here $n g$ is printed as usual], gho zii ghii o.ltiid bi mii.
179. Kortrïk, in French Courtrai, city ( $50 n 55,3 e 12$ ). II. 374.
[The Kortrijkers omit final $d$, especially before a consonant, as $i$ ston $m e$ ' siin oe ip ziin oof, en $i$ iel 'n broo in ziin an $=$ lije stond met zijn hoed op zijn hoofd, en hij hield een brood in zijun hand, 'he stood with his hat on his head, and he held a bread-loaf in his hand.' Final $n$ is so frequently omitted that the Kortrijkers are nicknamed emnebiters, ' en-biters.' Also $l$ and $r$ are frequently omitted. Sch is called $s k$. Final ië (iə) is constantly used as a diminutive.]

11 no man a theee zoeens. 12 әn za kree'ghən elk œ'ldər dee'l. 15 dii déi om ghaan mee do zbhiins. 18 vaA.dar, k -ee ghazo ndigh tee-ghən yy. 2.2 loop om-t be-sta klee' әu duu-t-am an; ən duu-nə riiqk an ziin an, on duu skhuu 1 əou [as $s c \bar{h}$, and not $s k$, is written, I copy it] an ziin vuuta. 23 't vet kolf. 24 bhan mii $\cdot$ nə zœळœ'nə bha das, an ii as bheera ghəvo nda. 25 dən óu dstə zœœ.nə bhaa daar binst ip-t lan. os i bheera kee'rda van də sti $\mathrm{k} \neq n$, en bii-t yys van zi vat $\cdot d$ dar bhaa, oordon-i zi•qən an da•nsa. 27 yy bruu'ro. 29 om mee miin vriondən to keramesan. 31 ju•qən, ghee ziit o-ltiid bii mii.
180. Iperen, in French Ypres, city ( $50 n 52,2$ e 53 ). II. 378.

11 daa bhos ə man dii tbhee zœœens a $\cdot$ də. 12 әn də vaa də dee-J-ət. 15 om də zbhiins to bha*khten. 18 vaa-dər, $k$-éin exzuurndeghd [this (EE) for (gho) in participles is said to sound just as $\hat{e}$ in the French être] tee-ghon jum. 22 briiqkt a keer zeerra ['quickly '] a nioeo'bbhə bruuk
 a nduun. stekt o riiqk an za vii-ndor әn gheet-ən niœece'blə [(niée-bho) may be the proper word; niewe is printed twice and nieuwe once, but eu does not appear to be otherwise replaced by $e$ ] skhuun. 23 ə vet kolf. 24 mə Juq`ən [see specimen 173 on (q)] bhos dood, an-ən es bhee'rə eevun'ndən. 25 Јаmaa, os dou un-dsta zœœセnə van-t lant kbham, bhaa dat-ən bhos ghaan bherkon, on dat-ən bi-t yys kbham, әп oorrdə da•nsən on zii-qən on sprii'qən. 27 дә broo'rə. 29 om z-ер t-ee-tan ['to eat it up'] mee man rrii•ndən. 31 Juq•on, J-ən-EE ghii nii to klaa'ghən; ghə ziit van tj'nœe $k$ ktəus
tun tj'naa vons ['from morning to evening,' Dutch ochtends, avonds] bi miin.
181. Poperingen, town (50n52, $2 e 43$ ). II. 382 .

11 t-bhos ee kee ee mens, dii thhee zecons add. 12 on da vas $\cdot$ dar dee'lda w-ldər-t ghuut. 15 om do zbhiins to bha khtan. 18 vaA dar, k-en eezo'ndighd tee ghon suun. 22 briiqt [see specimen 173 on (q)] ma zeere zon be'stə kaza-kə en dun-so-m an, stekt ex riiqk an ze viiq•or on dun so skhmu an. 23 't vet kalf. 24 om das bhi $\cdot \mathrm{la}$ mo zœor no bhos dood, ən-ən is yyt eeko mon. 25 tum kam dan uu disto zoœerno ran-t stik, on os an outre"nt t-yys kam, on dat on $z$-oordə zii'qən әи myyzii'ka spee:lən. 27 лә hroo'rə. 29 om miin vrii-ndon to traktee ran . 31 Joq•ən, Jə zii ghii 0 san [for olsan, that is, als aan, always] bi miin.
182. Teurne-Ambacht, district, manor of Teurne, town, in French Furnes ( $51 n 4,2$ e 38). IÍ. 386.

11 t-bhos a kee a man, ən dii man ada thhee zuecens. 12 on do vaa'da dee ldon œ-ldər -t ghuut. 15 om to zbhiins to bhakbton. 18 vaA dar, $\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{en} \mathrm{daa} \mathrm{leek} \mathrm{misdaa'n} \mathrm{tee} \mathrm{ghon} \mathrm{juun}$. 22 zee'ra ['haste'] om a be'sto kaza k ә vas ma zœœe no, dunt-əu $z$-an, on duut-zn ә paar skhuun an. 23 't kolf daa m-ee vat ən. 24 mə zœœ•no daa bhos dood, an m-an ən bhecero Eevoq:ən [see specimen 173 on (q)]. 25 dən uu•dsta zœœ•no bhos bii da bhii•la œp do sti•kən os ən nyy van zo bherk kam, lik of ən nii verə mee van zon yys bhos, ən oorrdə zə da•nsan an sprii•qan on myyzii*ka spee•lon. 27 i broo'ra. 29 om mee ma vrii ndan a kee ke'rame'sa t-uu'dəu. 31 zœœ•nə, i blyyf ghi 0 :san bi miin.

## XXXIV. FRANCE. II. 389.

183. St. Winok's Bergen, in French Bergues, town ( $50 n 59,2 e 25$ ). II. 395.
[In the town itself the people generally speak Flemish, and but few French; the country round about the town is quite Flemish.]

11 t -bhas on keer on vaid dor dat on paar zocens a doda. 12 on dən uu•don brai-vall man, Jas, nom deetha z'u fortyy"no. 15 don luur ['hoor,' peasant] bee ['well'!], ee zoq [see spucimen 173 on (q)] an op san land mee-son
z.bhiins, sensec ['only think']. 18 t-is bhaa ['it is true '] mon vaa'dor, $k$-on zo'ndo eedan'n tecerghou Juun. 22 lopt, zeght-on, briiq-ot be•sto abii•t [French habit], dii m-en ['which I hare' ${ }^{\text {, on trekin-t ncm an ; stikt-on }}$ on-riiqk rond zon viig-ar, on ghcet-on on paar skhuun. 23 ot ret kaaf. 24 om-s-bhi lo, mon Juq-ston suq.on, diiton dood bhas, is t-yys exkomon. 25 dən uu dstan zoceno, bee, on bhas op-t veld etbhaa, an diit-ən bi-t yys crovee'rdə ['arrived'], ən әэ‘rdə daa on rymmurr onghioard, on zii•gon on k'hi $\cdot q k \neq n$ an da nsen. 27 zan frec'ra. 29 om men ke nesən to bashkii. ok kn. 31 Juq.an, Ja blyyft ghii mee miin.
184. Duinkerke, in French Dunkerque, in English Dunkirk, town (51 $n 3,2$ e 23). II. 401.

11 da bhos'n keer ee man, en 'n ad tbhee zocens. 12 do vaa dar ghaf an ziin tbhee zœoms elk-t sii nə. 15 bii ziin zbhiins. 18 vaa'dar, k-en-ən folii• ['folly'] exdaa•n ce-ghon sumn. 22 on i zee; aald om ta fee'ta ee
niocor'blion tenyy [French tenu]. 23 't ke rmes-ka'ff.' 24 van apree-tuu [French après tout,] miin zocarne bhos dэəd, en-ən is eevo non. 25 en os dan uu•dsta zocon daa rook, ee bhas eepikecrd ['piqued'] 29 om op-t ce.ton mee-mon kompansons [Fr. compagnons]. 31 ort, Ju'qən, [see specimen 173 on (4)] ik an ghii bhoœ.nəu a-ltiid to ghaa ro ['together'].
XXXV. Aanhangele, Appendix. II. 408.
[This gives a version in the Roodwaalsch or slang of the South-Netherland or Belgian Limburgish Kempen (specimen 185), and of Zeele in East Flanders (specimen 186), which have no interest for our present purpose.]

Note.-Since p. 1393, col. 2, 1. 8 from bottom, was printed otf, I have been informed that the Dutch porsie for portion has the accent on the first syllable, and is (porsii, porsi) or (por-sha). French words in -tion, -sion, become words in -sie in Dutch, and end either in (-sii, -si) or (-sia', -sha).

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This completes the studies introductory to the consideration of our English dialects. It may be thought at first that too wide a range has been taken, but niy own conviction is that the error lies in the other direction, and that those studies will prove insufficient for the complete phonologic study of our dialects, because I have found that, since most of them were in type, on attempting to deal with some existing cases which have come before me, my own knowledge has only too frequently made defanlt. Thus in rowels, the oo and short $u$ of Nortlinmberland, taken as (u); the oo of West Somerset, of North and Sonth Devon, of Norfolk and Suffolk, taken as ( $5 y$, íu), are still phonologic riddles, and I might greatly increase the list. In consonants, the different uvular $r$ 's of Northumberland, and the (glottal or revertel) $r$ 's of Wiltshire, Gloucester, and Somerset; and eren the trilled $r$ 's of Scotland, Westmorland and Ireland (said to be different), are not yet discriminated phonetically with sufficient accuracy. For many of the diphthongs and fractures extreme difficulty is felt in determining the position of stress, the length of the elements, and the quality of the element not under the stress. The peculiaritios of intonation, which are locally most characteristic, are as yet phonetically uncharacterized.

For those who simply regard dialectal talk as "funny," "odd," "curious," "ridiculous," or "vulgar," such like difficulties do not exist. Even philologists, who have wrapped themselves up in their garment of Roman letters, as musicians in their equally tempered drab, will not care for them. But as no scientific theory of concord can be erolved from the blurred representation or rather caricature of consonance which this temperament can alone produce, so no scientific theory of organic change of words, which forms the staple of philology, can be deduced from the incomplete, dazzling, puzzling, varying, orthography which Latin letters can alone present. The great object of this work has been from boneath this heary cloak to trace the living form, with the pure philological purpose of arriving at scientific theories which shall help us to derive the present from the past of language. The result cau be but a rough approximation after all. But in forming au estimate for any work it is usual to calculate to farthings, and then lay on a broad margin for contingency. So here we must endearour to trace to the minutest details, howerer absurdly small they may appear, and then allow a wide "debateable land" for inevitable errors. The nature of such a land is well enough shewn by an example in the preceding introductory remarks (pp. 1371-3). The nature of the details is shewn in Nos. 6 and 7 (pp. 1265-1357). The guide to an appreciation of the English laws of change will be found in the changes so carefully tabulated by Schmeller for Bavarian High German (pp. 1357-1368), a language descended from the same remote common ancestor as our own, and those which can be inferred from Winkler's collections (pp. 1378-1428) for descendants on the original soil from the same progenitor. With this preparation tre will endeavour to investigate the phonology of existing English dialects/themselves, as a clue to the radically dialectal English of our forefathers.


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## CIRCULATE AS MONOGRAPH


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ See an account of his book suprà, p. 41, where he is erroneously called Bishop of Ripon, of which he was only Dean. He married the widow Robina

    French, sister of Oliver Cromwell.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the considerations which have influenced me, see suprà pp. 68, 100, 177.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Either (nərдiq) meaning (нәrगi, $i \mathrm{q}$ ) or (нәгііq) meaning (нәг $i \boldsymbol{i} \mathrm{iq}$ ).

[^2]:    2 Probably (kænat) cannot.
    ${ }^{3}$ Meaning (rait) write, see p. 1062, 11.3.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ A dear old friend of mine called me to task many ycars ago for saying (lek'tsh.ı), she had "never heard" (that's the usual phrase, and this lady, who was far from being pedautic, spoke with perfect sincerity, though in obvious error) "any educated person use such a pronunciation; she always said (lek•tsuuxr) herself." Of course, as we were talking of lectures, in the next sentence she forgot all about orthoepy, and went on calmly and unconsciously talking of (lek'tsh.zz) herself. This one out of many instances is recorded, because it made a great impression on me at the time.
    ${ }^{2}$ Hence one of the great difficulties of key-words. Each pronounces them according to his own habit, and thus

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sce Mr. Murray's remarks on modern Scotch orthography (ibid. pp. 7577), which, he says, "to the actual spoken language bears precisely the relation that is borne to Chaucer's English by a modernized version of his writings, using the present English spelling, except for obsolete words, or where prevented by the rhyme." In
    fact, "three-fourths to nine-tenths of the words are old friends" to the eye of an Englishman; but if he gets a Scotclman to read, "not more than three words in a hundred would be heard as the same as the English words with which they are identified in spelling." Numerous corroborations will occur hercafter.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Transactions of the Philological Socicty for 1873-4, pp. 113-164.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sce Buchanan's use of (i) in many unaccented syllables, suprà pp. 1053-4.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ I am told it is called (fonl hasl). With regard to the preceding names, as Mackay is certainly pronounced (Mukæe'i, Mekz'i, Makai ${ }^{\prime}$ ), as well as in the three ways mentioned, I cannot assign the poet's mame, but I have also heard it called ( 1 ireki). Clanricard, I generally hear called (Klienn:rikikd), of course, an Anglicisim. (Tirit, Neep Jii.1) or (Nee pijer), not (Necpiix'), as it is very

[^8]:    "The Remaining Ineidental Towels, by nature long, though liable to be shortencl."
    23. accented as in papa, the interj.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ One of my kind assistants, who is collecting materials for a local glossary, said that I had opened his eyes; he had hitherto thought of words, and not of their sounds. To think of a word independently of its sound is the outcome of our school instruction. In schools a word is a sign on paper, to which different persons may give different sounds, and which some people a long way off and a long time ago, in Greece or Italy, pronounced we don't know, and we don't eare, how. But in writing a glossary we are writing words

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Philological Essays of the late Rev. Richard Garnctt, of the British Muscum, edited by his son, 1859, large 8vo. pp. 342. See especially the essay on English Dialects, pp. 41-77, and on the Languages and Dialcets of the British Isles, pp. 147-195, in which, however, phonetics are as usual assumed,

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is only this sentence which applies to Lincolushire. The other parts refer to the northern area generally, and the words are apparently quite isolated, not even belonging to any particular locality. It was enough for Dr. Gili that they came from the north of his own county of Lincoln.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the original (foloon), but the $n$ is probably a misprint for u ; unfortunately Gill has forgotten to add the meaning.
    ${ }^{3}$ Misprinted eut.
    ${ }^{4}$ Sce a specimen of connected Northern pronunciation as given by Gill ( $854, d$ ).
    5 See the quotation from Shakspere $(293, c)$, which is written in the nsual half phonetic style still prevalent in dialectal specimens. In an introductory note to Mr. Kite's Wiltshire Version of the Song of Solomon, referred to in No.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cant must have been already a common term, therefore.
    2 Title not known.
    ${ }^{3}$ See the remarks on Vowel Quality, below No. 6, iii.
    ${ }_{4}$ The Society which is publishing the Lancashire flossary finds the use of glossic 'tor difficult,' and hence proposes a 'simple' mode of indicating the pronunciation. I have not had the advantage of seeing this 'simple' mode as yet. But any writers who find glossic too difficult have probably every thing to learn in the study of phonology, and it is very likely that any 'simple, plan they could suggest would owe its apparcnt simplicity to omissious and
    double uses, which, of little importance to those who do not thirst for accurate knowledge,--to the dilettantiof dialectal wrtting,-are excruciating to the accurate investigator of linguistic change. It is possible, however, for any particular dialect to have a much simpler form of expression than glossic, which should still be severe, but such simpler form would be worse than useless for comparative diatectal phonology of English, for which glossic is proposed. Glossic is simpler than palarotype for the same reason-it is English, not cosmopolitan.

    5 The reader is reforred generally to the discussions on pp. 1091-1171.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is apt to be forgotten. At some carly time, when phonetic knowledge was comparatively small, or the necessity of discriminating sounds was not strongly felt, alphabetic writing was comparatively vague, and, moreover, it so happens that alphabets invented for languages with one set of vowels have been used for languages with a totally different set. How much languages thus differ will be seen at the end of the next sub-number iii. But still the writing uas based on observation, such as it was.
    ${ }^{2}$ "All alteration in the text of a MS., however plausible and clever, is nothing clse but a sophistication of the evidence at its fountain-head: however imperfect the information conveyed by
    the old scribe may be, it is still the only information we have, and, as such, ought to be made generally accessible in a reliable form." Preface to King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care, by H. Sucet, p. viii, an edition in which the new method required for Anglo-Saxon study is well initiated. When a young man like Mr. Sweet is capable of doing such work as this, what may we not hope from his maturer years. His accurate knowledge of phonetics, and his careful powers of observation, to which frequent allusion has been made in these pages, lead us to expect the best results hereafter, if he only have opportunity to do the work he is so well qualified to produce.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is almost impossible in such a work as the present to avoid repetitions. Some of the present matter was anticipated on p. 161, where the
    shape of the resonance tube is more fully described. It was found, however, insufficient for our present purpose merely to refer to that passage.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ There are probably always many kinds of resonance, and when the cavitics are unfarourably constituted, there are reinfurcements not only of dissonant or beating higher components, but there are also sounds produced by friction, and divided streams
    of air, and cddics, all of which will beat, and produce noises which mingle with the true vowel quality. Such noises are never abscnt from speech, and distinguish it from song. It is one of the great prohlems of the singer to eliminate thein altogether.

[^16]:    ${ }_{1}$ This retraction of the tongue for (A) I frequently found useful when desiring to examine the throat of a child, who, when he opens his mouth, usually stuffs his tongue uncomfortably in the way, from not knowing what to do with it, and is always annoyed by having it held down by a spoon or paper knife, which he naturally struggles against. I used to say, "Open your

[^17]:    1 Lepsius gives two accounts, first, "the lips take the broad," meaning horizontally transverse, "position of the $i$, and the tongue is withdrawn as in the $u$," this, with his value of $u$, gives $\left(A_{i}\right)$, as in the text. But he afterwards says that in forming this vowel " the middle tongue is lifted up to the palatal [coronal] point in the middle of the hard roof of the palate; from this point it slopes down almost

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Prince L. L. Bonaparte does not make preeisely these distinctions. He gives what is here marked ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{e}$ ) in French as $\left(e_{1}, c\right)$, and what is marked

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Russians reekon their t as a rowel, and the Prince identifies this with ( 18 ' h ). He also considers a peculiar kind of after-sound in the Wallachian final $(\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m})$ to be the same, see language 27 , below. To me it sounded, when he pronounced it, more like (;'h ${ }_{6}$, coming immediately aiter a

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare the "etymological" ă é $\begin{gathered}\text { c } \\ \text { graphy, in the examples, p. 1304, }\end{gathered}$

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ The real French (y) in France itself is derived from an original Latin (u), and the process of derivation may have been precisely the same, from (iu). We find numerous proofs of the existence of the types (ia, aia) in French, so that this lypothesis has an historic foundation.

[^22]:    1 We have here the same controversy as on pp. 1092-3. With regard to Salesbury's rvyth (762, b. 763, c), I was much struck by hearing Dr. Benjamin Daries $(769, c)$ read the Welsh wyth $=8$, distinctly as (úyth), without

[^23]:    a trace of (wyth), on 6 Feb. 1874; yet I have not noticed this peculiarity in his pronunciation of English with.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sometimes the word comes to me as (hihie'm), sometimes as (Jhem), and may possibly vary as (JhJem).

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the Forest of Dean I have heard the suffracture (ái) as in (náim) for name, compare ( $253, c$ ), remember-
    ing Gower's probable extraction (726, b), and that S. Western English is spoken in Gowerland.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus (ri'l), haring a well-known S.E. Yorkshire fracture, "genteel" speakers in Hull are horrified, and say (riil), as I have been told by Rev.

    Henry Ward, who is well acquainted with the district, and to whom I owe the specimens of S.E. Yorkshire in Nos. 11 and 12 , variety $15 f$.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mr. Hallam felt the same diffieulty in marking this ( $t$ ) in the Chesterfield variety of Derbyshire. On referring
    to his notes he finds the ( $t$ ) grouped to the preceding vowel in nearly half the eases which he wrote from observation.

[^27]:    1 When I was a boy at school, I suddenly became conscious that I pronounced the radical forms $\kappa \lambda \alpha \alpha^{\prime} \omega$ and $\tau \lambda \alpha \dot{\alpha} \omega$ in the same way. It cost me much trouble and years of practice to obtain (kl-) with ease and certainty, and the same for (gl-). As a consequence, my attention has been constantly drawn to this defect of speech in others. The Welsh (11) heard at a distance from a crier shouting out Llandudno at Rhyll sounded to me much more like ( tl )
    than (thl), with which Englishmen generally confuse it.
    ${ }^{2}$ The demonstration of (sh), see (1104, $d^{\prime}$ ), makes it possible that the French may not have developed ( $t$, sh) at first, as has been thought, but only (sh), and this may have generated ( $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{sh}$ ) in Norman months, whence its English form, but have reduced to (sh) in French. See $(207, a)$. This is merely thrown out for consideration; indecd (kj) may have come first ( $1120, d^{\prime \prime}$ ).

[^28]:    1 "The northern limits of the burr $(r)$ are very sharply defined, there being no transitional sound between it and the Scoteh $r$ (.r). From Carham [55n 39, $2 w 23$, the extreme N.W. point of Nortlumberland] eastwards, the boundary follows the Tweed, which it leaves, however, to inchude the town and liberties of Berwick, whieh in this, as in other respects, now adheres to the Southern in preference to its own side of the Tweed. Along the line of the Cheviots, the Scotch $r(. r)$ has driven the burr $(r)$ a few miles back, perhaps

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ A ferw theoretical signs occur in the following scheme furnished me by the Prince, and they were adopted mainly from my own list (supra, pp. 3-10),

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mr. Klaassen of Emden, an East Friesian, tells me that in his own country, as well as in England, dialects
    must be collected now or never. Even street labourers in Emden (specimen 37) now speak High German.

